

THE
MONTHLY EPITOME,

For MARCH 1798.

XXVII. *The History of the Reign of Shah-Aulum*, the present Emperor of Hindoostan; containing the Transactions of the Court of Delhi, and the neighbouring States, during a Period of thirty-six Years: interspersed with geographical and topographical Observations on several of the principal Cities of Hindoostan. With an Appendix, containing the following Tracts, viz. 1. An Account of modern Delhi. 2. A Narrative of the late Revolution at Rampore, in Rohilcund, in 1794. 3. Translation of a Letter, written in the Persian Language, from the Prince Mirza Juwaun Bukht Jehaundar Shah, eldest Son of the King of Delhi, to his Majesty George the Third, King of Great Britain, in the Year 1785: with a Copy of the Original. 4. Translation in Verse of an Elegy, written by the King of Delhi after the Loss of his Sight: with a Copy of the Original. By W. FRANCKLIN, Captain in the East India Company's Service, &c. &c. 4to. pp. 254. 1l. 1s. *Faulder, Cadell.*

LIST OF PLATES.

MAP of Hindoostan, illustrating the History of the Reign of Shah-Aulum—Whole-length Portrait of Shah-VOL. II.—No. III.

Aulum—Ditto of Mirza Nujuff Khan Zulficar al Dowlah—Ditto of Mujad al Dowlah—Ditto of Madhajee Sindiah.

EXTRACT FROM THE PREFACE.

"AN account of the transactions at the court of Delhi, during an interesting and eventful period, and the incidents and occurrences which have marked the decline of power of the race of Timoor under the turbulent reign of the ill-fated Shah-Aulum (in all probability the last of that family who will sit on the throne of Hindoostan), cannot, it is presumed, fail to prove acceptable to a British reader. A long residence in India has afforded the author frequent opportunities of acquiring much local information; and most of the geographical remarks were obtained by him on the spot, while on a survey, ordered by the Bengal government, through the Doo Ab and adjacent countries, in 1793-4; and on a similar occasion, through the province of Rohilcund, in 1795-6.

"The perusal of the several Persian manuscripts named in the Appendix, and particularly the Shah Aulum Nameh (a history of the reign of the present king), written by Gholaum Ali, a learned native, afforded the author ample materials for relating such transactions as took place within the authority and influence of the court at Delhi: and to his friends, on various occasions, he is happy to acknowledge his grateful obligations."

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EXTRACT.

CHAP. X.—SHAH AULUM DETHRONED IN 1788.

"IT was at this period Gholam Caudir first formed his resolution to strike a decisive blow; he saw the supineness of the Marhatta army, and the defenceless state of the capital; and being totally void of principle, and heedless of consequences, he formed and executed the bold design of plundering the imperial palace, and de-throning his sovereign. In order to facilitate the accomplishment of his plan, he previously sent letters to his former colleague, Ismael Beg, in which, after many apologies for his late behaviour towards that chief, he faithfully promised for the future to share his fortunes. To excite his compliance, he laid open the proposed method of accomplishing this daring enterprise, and tempted his avaricious spirit with the hopes of rioting in the hidden wealth and treasures which were said to be deposited within the royal palace. To these proposals, however nefarious, Ismael Beg, though at the expense of his honour, scrupled not to yield his ready assent. He accordingly quitted the place of his retirement, and shortly after arrived in the camp of Gholam Caudir. He was received with every mark of cordiality and respect; and the two chiefs, after making a suitable arrangement of their

their force, commenced their march towards the capital.

A Marhatta garrison, under the command of Himmut Behadur, still occupied the fort and city of Delhi. Budel Beg Khan, Solimaun Beg, and other lords, were also at this time about the king. The conspirators, on their arrival at the eastern bank of the river Jumna, opposite to the palace, dispatched a messenger to court, demanding, in insolent and threatening terms, an immediate admission to the royal presence. Shah-Aulum, who was well acquainted with the perfidious disposition of these chiefs, resolutely refused them entrance, and relying on the fidelity and attachment of his nobles, hoped, by their exertions, to defeat the traitors' machinations.— But, alas, how miserably was the unfortunate prince deceived! Those very men, infligated by the detested policy of the Nazir, entered closely into the views of the rebel chiefs, and forgetful of the confidence and beneficent attention of their king, during a series of thirty years, they hesitated not to abandon him in the hour of his distress. To this defection was added, likewise, that of Rajah Himmut Behadur, who, by a disgraceful and precipitate retreat from his post, fulfilled his reputation as a soldier, and his loyalty as a subject. Shah-Aulum was thus left in a defenceless state; and every obstacle being removed, Gholaum Caudir Khan and his wicked associate proceeded to the perpetration of their atrocious design. Two thousand Rohillas accompanied the traitors: on their arrival at the palace, they were met by the Nazir, who introduced them into the king's presence. Gholaum Caudir and Ismael Beg, placing themselves on each side the throne, performed the customary reverence. Gholaum Caudir then represented to his majesty, that, forced by the machinations of his enemies, who had slandered his reputation by calumnious charges, he had come to vindicate himself in the presence. Shah-Aulum, in reply, declared himself satisfied with the conduct of Gholaum Caudir in every point of view; and in testimony of his esteem, embraced the traitor. It was then hinted to the king, that the hour for his usual repait being arrived, it would be proper for his majesty to retire into the haram. On his majesty's depar-

ture, the chiefs, who remained in the audience chamber, entered into close debate on the execution of their plot.

Agreeably to the advice of the Nazir, the treasurer of the household, Seetul Dofs, was directed to repair to the king, and acquaint him of the necessity which existed of a prince of the royal family being immediately appointed to attend the army in a progress through the provinces; that Gholaum Caudir would charge himself with the conduct of the war against the Marhattas; and that, as a pledge for his own honour and safety, the command of the citadel and garrison should be immediately delivered up to such persons as he might choose to nominate. In order to quiet the king's apprehensions, and evince the sincerity of his own intentions, the crafty Rohilla, with his own hand, framed a treaty, in which, as a return for the confidence that was reposed in him, the traitor solemnly swore to defend the person and interests of the king against all opposition. The treaty being properly signed, Seerul Dofs carried it to the outward enclosure of the haram, where it was delivered to an attendant, who conveyed it to his majesty. The king having perused it, the treasurer was called in. That nobleman, faithful to his king, frankly told him that no reliance could be placed on the notorious perfidy of the Rohilla chief. He mentioned the cabals of the rebels in terms sorrowful and indignant; and, as a testimony of his own loyalty, he offered to return and put Gholaum Caudir Khan to instant death. To induce a compliance with his request, the treasurer urged that there was still a sufficient force within the palace to support the act, and expel the traitor's troops. But the king, by some unaccountable infatuation, refused his sanction to the deed, though it was the only probable means of extricating himself from his perilous situation. He rejected the proposal, and directed the treasurer to return to the rebels, and acquaint them with his acquiescence to the terms of the treaty. Meanwhile great numbers of the Rohillas who had entered the palace, penetrated in a tumultuous and disorderly manner into every part, nor were any steps taken by their chiefs to repel the outrages they committed. Shah-Aulum,

hum, informed of the circumstance, came forth from the haram, and going to the audience chamber, requested of Gholaum Caudir that he would, after placing the proper centinels within the fort, order the remainder of his troops to withdraw. The traitor professed obedience; but had no sooner reached the outer gate of the fort, than, instead of making the proposed arrangement, he gave the signal for the remainder of his guards to enter, which they instantly did; and in a few moments, the fort and palace, as well as the adjoining fort of Selim Ghur, were in possession of the rebels. The king's guards were now disarmed, and their officers put into close confinement. This additional insult being reported to the king, he directed an attendant to go to Gholaum Caudir, and in strong terms to remonstrate, and reproach him for his conduct. 'The 'ink,' said the unhappy monarch, 'with which the solemn treaty was 'written is scarce yet dry, when he 'breaks his faith.' The remonstrance proved of no avail; for the rebel having confined every person who might be able to assist the king, proceeded to the perpetration of additional indignities. Entering armed into the audience chamber, he insolently demanded assignments for the payment of his troops, who were then clamorous for their arrears. The king in vain pleaded his total inability to afford any relief, but told the rebel to seize upon whatever he thought proper within the precincts of the palace. After much altercation, and a disgraceful scene, the unfortunate Shah-Aulum was permitted to return to his haram, to ruminate on his miserable and degraded state. The plan now approached its termination. Early on the ensuing morning, the rebels in concert, at the head of a numerous band of followers, well armed, entered the audience chamber where Shah-Aulum was sitting. Completely surrounding the throne, they sternly commanded the princes of the royal family who were present to retire within the haram.—They obeyed—Gholaum Caudir then dispatched a messenger to the fort of Selim Ghur, which is contiguous to the palace, to bring forth Beedar Shah, a son of the late emperor Ahumud Shah. The traitor then approached the throne, and took up the shield and cimeter,

which, as emblems of royalty, were placed on a cushion before the king; these he configned to the hands of an attendant, and turning towards Shah-Aulum, sternly commanded him to descend; 'Better,' said the aged monarch, 'far better will it be for Gholaum Caudir to plunge his dagger in my bosom, than load me with such indignity.' The Rohilla, frowning, put his hand to his sword, but the Nazir at the instant stepping up prevented him from drawing it. With unblushing effrontery he then turned towards his sovereign, and audaciously told him, that resistance being vain, he would do well to comply with the traitor's demand. Abandoned by all, the king then rose from his seat, and retired to the haram, and a few minutes after Beedar Shah made his appearance; he was saluted by the rebels as emperor of Hindostan, under the title of Jehaun Shah, and the customary Nazirs having been presented, the event was proclaimed to the citizens of Delhi by the sound of trumpets and the acclamations of the populace.

"The family of the dethroned king were now directed to retire within the fort of Selim Ghur, and those of Jehaun Shah to occupy their apartments in the palace. Jehaun Shah, however, too soon found himself an idle pageant in the hands of his pretended friends. On applying to Gholaum Caudir to accompany him on a visit to the great cathedral, to receive the royal investiture with the accustomed solemnity in the eyes of the people, the tyrant answered, that the time proper for such ceremony was not yet come, and that business of greater moment first demanded his attention; in the mean time great distresses prevailed within the walls of the haram, and the cries of females were heard aloud. The next step taken by the rebellious chiefs, was to send a party of soldiers to the palace of the two aged princesses, Maleka Limani, and Sahiba Mahâl. These ladies were the widows of the deceased emperor, Mahmud Shah, and had, for more than twenty years, lived in a manner entirely secluded from the world. As they were known, not only to be very rich, but to possess considerable influence over the royal family, they were now ordered to court; and, on their arrival, directed to visit the haram, and persuade the females there confined,

fined, quietly to deliver up their jewels and valuable effects. The office was invidious. Some persons in Delhi have not scrupled to affirm, that the princesses refused compliance with the order, and pleaded their advanced age and high rank, as reasons for declining the office; but, on the other hand, they are accused of having encouraged the usurper, and to have endeavoured, by intrigue, to form a secret treaty to raise to the throne a relation of their own. Certain it is, they visited the haram, but without the success expected, and on their return declined farther interference; this conduct contributed only to exacerbate the tyrant. With inhume capacity he caused those venerable ladies to be robbed of all their property, which the benevolence of their emperor, in more prosperous days, had bestowed upon them, and they were afterwards commanded to retire to their own habitation. The thirty-six lacks of rupees, as before stated, not coming into the treasury, Gholaum Caudir infolently threatened the new king with his severe displeasure; and added, in terms sarcastically poignant, that as he had elevated him to his present dignity, he could with equal facility deprive him of it. Perceiving the tyrant's drift, Jehaun Shah retired into the haram, and having, partly by menaces and alternate footings, constrained the unhappy women to deliver up their jewels and ornaments, and other valuables; he sent them in trays to Gholaum Caudir. The royal family were by this means reduced to great distress; the cries within the haram became much louder, and their sufferings more acute; and with sorrow we relate, that so high a pitch was it carried, that some of the inferior order of females actually perished for want, or, urged by the bitterness of despair, raised their hands against their own lives. Insensible to the general distress, and unsatiated with plunder, Gholaum Caudir Khan, finding he had nothing more to expect from the new king, proceeded to the last act of wanton cruelty. He sent for the dethroned king and all the princes of the royal family to the audience chamber; on their arrival, he sternly commanded Shah-Aulum to discover his concealed treasures: in vain did the king plead his degraded state, and the consequent inability to

conceal even the smallest article. Inflamed by a continual debauch, which had thrown him into a paroxysm of rage, the tyrant threatened his sovereign with instant loss of sight. 'What!' exclaimed the suffering prince; 'will you destroy those eyes, which, for a period of sixty years, have been assiduously employed in perusing the sacred Koran?' Regardless of the pathetic appeal, the Rohilla, with characteristic inhumanity, commanded his attendants to seize the king. Having thrown him on the floor, the ferocious ruffian, implanting himself on his bosom, transfixed with a poignard the eyes of his venerable sovereign! On the completion of this horrid deed, Gholaum Caudir ordered the king to be removed to a distant apartment. The miserable Shah-Aulum, pale and bleeding, was conducted to his retreat; there, in all the bitterness of anguish, to contemplate on his now ruined fortunes.

"Emphatic, indeed, were the expressions of the native author (Svud Rezzi Khan), in relating the fallen condition of his sovereign. 'This wretch!' exclaims the indignant historian; 'this accursed wretch, has, in one fatal moment, darkened the bright star of the august Timoorian family, and buried in the whirlpool of destruction the stately vessel of imperial authority!' The king, however, evinced, under such accumulated misfortunes, a firmness of mind and resignation, highly honourable in his character. And it may not be unworthy to remark, that the natives of Asia in general, probably from the principles of predestination which they imbibe in their youth, are observed to sustain themselves under misfortune in a manner worthy of imitation by the European Christian. Shah-Aulum surviving the loss of his sight, during his confinement solaced himself in contemplative reveries, and in composing elegiac verses, descriptive of his deplorable state.

"But from such heart-rending scenes, let us hasten to relate the remaining actions of this execrable monster. His next victim was the infamous Nazir. This man, through whole disloyalty and ingratitude Gholaum Caudir had been enabled to perpetrate his atrocities, now most deservedly experienced the effects of his perfidious conduct. He was directed

by the tyrant to give in an inventory of his property and effects, and on refusing to comply, he was seized, and put into close confinement, when his ill-gotten wealth was forcibly taken from him; thus exhibiting to the world an exemplary instance of retributive justice for his demerits.

" As Gholaum Caudir's wealth accumulated, his avarice rose to a proportionate degree, and blind to the impolicy of such step, he refused to make an equal division of the spoil with his guilty associate. Ismael Beg, incensed at this treatment, resolved to abandon him. He accordingly withdrew his guards from the palace, and retired to his own house. From thence he dispatched letters to the Marhatta general, acknowledging his errors, and offering to atone for them by professions of future obedience and fidelity, and declaring his readiness to join the Marhattas in any measures toward the tyrant's expulsion.

" The lupineness of the Marhatta government during the late disgraceful transactions has been deservedly reprobated, and is difficult to be accounted for on any principle of policy or advantage to the state. Indeed, the unhappy monarch, from a strange combination of circumstances, seems to have been forsaken by all his friends when he most needed their assistance; and it is much to be regretted that the state of British politics at that time did not admit of interference on the part of his old, and, till now, faithful allies.

" Sindiah, when informed of the late tragical events, ordered his general, Ranah Khan, to march forthwith to Delhi, expel the traitor, and liberate Shah-Aulum from his confinement. These orders were obeyed with a willing alacrity on the part of Ranah Khan, and he exerted himself with so much diligence, that the van of the Marhatta army was in sight of the capital, when Gholaum Caudir Khan, awakened from his dream of riot and intemperance, received the first tidings of the enemy's approach. Finding his situation in the imperial palace to be untenable, he prepared for flight; but, previous to his departure, he collected the plunder, and taking the new king along with him, with all the princes of the royal family, together with the infamous Nazir, he quitted the fort by a private passage,

and crossing the river Jumna, effected his retreat to Meerut, a town in the centre of the Doo Ab, and distant about fifty miles from Delhi.

" On the flight of Gholaum Caudir, the Marhatta general advanced, and took possession of the city and palace. His first care was to release the de-throned king, cause him to be proclaimed in Delhi, and furnish him with every thing necessary for his convenience or comfort. Ranah Khan having then placed a strong garrison in the citadel, immediately set out in pursuit of the rebel chief. Previous, however, to that step, he, by order of Sindiah, afforded Ismael Beg a liberal supply of money for the payment of his discontented soldiers; and directed that chief to proceed to the districts of Rewari and Gocul Ghur, whence he was commanded to expel Nujuff Cooli Khan, who had beheld with indifference the late enormities at Delhi.

" These arrangements being finished, Ranah Khan crossed the Jumna; on his second day's march, he was joined by a Marhatta chief, named Ali Behadur, who had for some time past been employed in Bundelcund, and now brought with him a body of 4000 horse in support of the general cause. The united force then proceeded to Meerut, which was garrisoned by a strong force of Rohillas, who still adhered to the tyrant's cause. Ranah Khan, not having any heavy artillery, was prevented from forming a regular siege; he therefore drew a line of circumvallation around, and blockaded the fort. This mode would, he apprehended, compel the garrison to a surrender, by the supplies from without being completely cut off; nor was he deceived in his expectation: for a dearth of provisions ensuing, the Rohillas began to sustain great inconvenience.

" Gholaum Caudir endeavoured by repeated sallies to animate his troops, and repel the besiegers. In every encounter the intrepid chief exhibited a gallantry and resolution, that would have done honour to a better cause. But finding all his efforts fruitless, and the garrison having become mutinous, he determined to attempt an escape.

" Attended by five hundred horse, who were still attached to him, he at their head rushed out of the fort, and charged the enemy so vigorously, that, though every endeavour was exerted

to take him prisoner, he made his way through the whole line, and accomplished his escape. But at length his own troops perceiving his forlorn condition, began by degrees to drop off; so that in a short time he was quite left alone: and, to complete his mishap, his horse, exhausted by fatigue, sunk under him, and he received in the fall a severe contusion. This accident compelled him to take refuge in an adjoining village, where, being recognised by the Zemindar of the place, he was seized, and put into confinement. Information of this circumstance having been conveyed to Ali Behadur, that chief sent a party of horse, who conducted him into the Marhatta camp. On the rebel's flight from Meerut, the garrison surrendered at discretion. Their lives were spared; and the princes of the royal family were released from their confinement, and under an honourable escort conveyed to Delhi. On their arrival, Jehaun Shah, after suffering severely for his short-lived elevation, was remanded back to his former abode in the fort of Selim Ghur. On the reduction of Meerut, Ranah Khan led his army to Sehaurunpore; which place, on hearing the fate of Gholam Caudir, submitted to the Marhatta authority, who from that time have remained undisturbed masters of the whole province. Soon after this event Ranah Khan with the army returned to Delhi, where by this time Mahara-jah Sindiah was likewise arrived, and had resumed his former authority in the state. The punishment of the rebel was too remarkable to be passed over in silence; nor did his guilty associate, the Nazir, escape the just vengeance of his insulted sovereign. Gholam Caudir, on his arrival in the Marhatta camp, was carried in the presence of the general; when, after repeated demands to discover the place where he had deposited the plunder of the palace, on his refusing to comply, he was delivered over to a punishment—terrible indeed. He was first placed in an iron cage, constructed for the occasion, and in this situation was suspended in front of the army. After suffering the insults and indignities of the soldiers, his nose, ears, hands, and feet were cut off; and in this mutilated and miserable condition he was by order of Ali Behadur sent off

to Delhi: but, on the journey, death relieved the miserable wretch from his sufferings: thus dreadfully atoning for the crimes of his savage and abandoned life! The Nazir, on his arrival at Delhi, was trodden to death under the feet of an elephant. Soon after the arrival of the Marhatta army, Sindiah appointed a day for reinstating the deposed king on the throne of his ancestors; and the ceremony was performed in the grand hall of audience with much pomp and solemnity. An allowance was, moreover, allotted to his majesty of nine lacks of rupees per annum for the support of his family and household, the superintendance of which was committed to Shah Nizam al Deen, a dependant on the Marhatta chief." P. 171.

CHARACTER OF SHAH-AULUM.

"THE few remaining years of the reign of Shah-Aulum can afford little on which to expiate or dignify. Reduced to dependence on a foreign power for the support of himself and a numerous family, the duration of his life cannot materially alter his situation; the fate of his family, and eventual successor, must remain to be recorded at a future period; but his reign may be more properly said to close when he sustained the fatal calamity before mentioned. Shah-Aulum, nominal emperor of Hindostan, is in his 75th year; his stature tall and commanding, his aspect dignified and majestic. The ravages of time are discernible on his face, and the recollection of his misfortunes has impressed his features with melancholy. His early youth was passed in spirited, though ineffectual, struggles, to restore the diminished lustre of imperial authority; and his conduct, whilst contending against the usurped power of Gazooddeen Khan, deserves great praise. But in the greater part of his life, little can be found deserving the applause of posterity. Irresolute and indecisive in his measures, he too frequently rendered useless the plans formed by his friends for the recovery of his authority, while his excessive love of pleasure, and infatuated attachment to unworthy favourites, contributed to degrade him in the eyes of his neighbours and allies, and render

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the small remains of his dominion contemptible. All his ministers, with the exception of Nujuff Khan, were prodigal and rapacious in the extreme; they perceived the king's weakness, and, by flattering his vanity and supplying his extravagance, ensured to themselves an uncontrolled authority in the state, while they abused the generosity of their sovereign by committing every species of enormity and oppressive violence.

"Shah-Aulum had improved a very good education by study and reflection; he was a complete master of the languages of the East, and as a writer attained an eminence seldom acquired by persons in his high station. His correspondence with the different princes of the country, during a very long and chequered reign, exhibits proofs of a mind highly cultivated; and if we may judge by an elegant essay composed after the cruel lots of his flight, he appears to have great merit in pathetic composition. In the internal economy of his household, he is universally allowed to be an affectionate parent, a kind master, and a generous patron. His trials have been many, and it is earnestly to be hoped the evening of his life may be passed in a peaceful tranquillity. Upon a review of his life and actions, it may, without injustice, be pronounced, that though Shah-Aulum possessed not a capacity sufficiently vigorous to renovate the springs of a relaxed government, or emulate his illustrious ancestors, he notwithstanding had many virtues commendable in a private station; but he unfortunately reigned at a time when the royal authority was in its most degraded state, and when great and shining talents were necessary to render permanent his power, and curb the licentious effusions of rebellious and disobedient subjects.

"The sun of Timoor, as a respectable historian (Captain J. Scott) has justly observed, is most probably set for ever; and if a continuation of the metaphor be allowable, it may be added, that the decline and utter extinction of that august family was reserved to the days of the unfortunate Shah-Aulum." P. 194.

XXVII. An Essay on Humanity to Animals. By THOMAS YOUNG, A. M. Fellow of Trinity College,

Cambridge. 12mo. 35. 6d. pp. 202.
Cadell, London; Deighton, Cambridge.

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EXTRACT.

"I BELIEVE that if a proper inquiry could be made, it would be found that many of those who have been brought to the scaffold for capital crimes, but more particularly many of those who have been executed for murder, might trace their progress in wickedness, and their consequent dreadful fate, from acts of barbarity to animals in their childhood or youth. Hogarth, whose judgment must be allowed to have weight on the present occasion, because he was, as his works incontestably prove, a most acute and accurate observer of common life, makes the career of the hero of his Four Stages of Cruelty commence with the barbarous treatment of animals, and conclude with murder, the gallows, and dissection.

"It seems to be a very general opinion, that the English law will not accept the evidence of a butcher in any trial wherein life is concerned; under the idea, that butchers are, from the nature of their business, apt to be rendered less feeling and humane than other classes of men. This opinion, however, respecting the evidence of butchers, is, I believe, a vulgar error; but it serves, at least, to show what is the sense of a great number of persons upon the subject in question.

"It being allowed, then, that cruelty to animals has a strong tendency to render us cruel towards our own species, we can have but little difficulty in concluding, that this alone is

is a sufficient reason why we should abstain from it. And by a similar argument we may conclude, that it is our duty to cultivate humanity towards animals. I do not mean that humanity only, which consists in a mere abstinence from persecution; but that operative humanity, which exerts itself in positive acts of kindness, and which, not content barely to rescue animals from pain, wishes, although it find them happy, to leave them still more abundantly gratified. Humanity, such as this, would undoubtedly tend to render us more humane towards mankind."

P. 4.

"It will be said, that we meet with numberless instances of men, occasionally guilty of cruelty to animals, who, nevertheless, are allowed by the world to be men of the best characters, and of the most amiable dispositions. The world, it is certain, is not so strict and severe in this point as some few individuals are; but it is equally certain, that when these offences against humanity come to be looked at attentively by reflecting and virtuous men, by men, whose praise is of the greatest value, and whose approbation is most to be coveted, they appear as stains in any character whatever. Even the world, when any one is guilty of some notorious act of barbarity to animals, or is excessively addicted to cruel and bloody sports, even the world itself, which holds the reins so loose in morals, is ready to look upon him as deficient in feeling for his own species. Nor is this opinion rash or ungrounded. Betwixt a man and his horse, or dog, or other animal which is familiar to him, many cords of affection will always intervene (unless the source of sympathy be dried up in his soul), differing in degree, probably far more than in kind, from those which tie the hearts of friends together. If then he wilfully and violently rend these asunder, and pass almost in an instant from a state of friendship with his dumb companion to the extreme of cruelty, is it not with reason that the world draws unfavourable conclusions respecting his humanity towards his own species?"

P. 36.

"Sportsmen in general are so wedded to their favourite pastime, and so firmly resolved to pursue it, that it may seem presumptuous to undertake to make any impression upon them,

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by appealing either to their heads or hearts. The truth is, I do not hope to succeed with any but the humane, and the greater part of the clergy. Very many of these last, I am persuaded, not only agree with me in opinion, but are careful that their practice should in no instance belie their conviction; and I am particularly anxious that the rest of their brethren should follow their example, because there is no other class of men to whose character these sports are, for many evident reasons, so little suited. Humanity, sensibility, and gentleness, are traits which ought always to be found in the character of a clergyman: his amusements should all be of the sober kind: not violent and boisterous, nor rough and inelegant. How disgusting then, how scandalizing to his parishioners, to see him ranging the fields and bursting over hedges, "with belted waist, and pointers at his heels!" How much more so, to see him joining in the fury and clamour of the chase, perhaps disguised in the habiliments of a jockey, and with the brush depending from his cap, the trophy of some hunting field!

- Oh, laugh or mourn with me the rueful jest,
- A cassock'd huntsman!
- He takes the field. The master of the pack
- Cries—Well done, Saint!—and claps him on the back.
- Is this the path of sanctity? Is this
- To stand a way-mark in the road to bliss?"

COWPER.

"To the clergy, therefore, and to the humane in general, I will propose one consideration more, which will have its weight with them as an argument against the diversions in question: I mean the pain which they bring upon the animals that are their victims. Let us take the hare for an instance. Let us take her, just at the moment when her startled ear catches in the breeze the first faint sound of her approaching foes; for this is the beginning of her pain, inasmuch as it is the commencement of her terror. Let us accompany her through all her long and painful flight, until her strength and spirits are exhausted.

"See how black she looks! How heavily she reels along! If ever your limbs

limbs have felt the pain of excessive fatigue, think what she feels now. Think what are her sensations as she passes her well-known haunts, where she has so often fed at ease, and gamboled in security! But see, she is surrounded by her pursuers; and that infant shriek expressed the height and the close of her distress." P. 81.

"The dog is, perhaps, the most docile and sagacious of animals; he knows his master best, remembers him longest, understands his language and his looks the most perfectly, and feels most sensibly his kindness or his displeasure: his sagacity in distinguishing the flocks and the property of his master, his fidelity and watchfulness in guarding, his courage in defending them, his skill and swiftness in tracing, and his resolution in securing the thief, are all unrivalled among brutes, and render him highly valuable to mankind. P. 153.

"But nothing, perhaps, would plead with more eloquence and efficacy in favour of this animal, than some of the more uncommon and remarkable instances of his fidelity and attachment to man.

"A shepherd had driven a part of his flock to a neighbouring fair, leaving his dog to watch the remainder during that day and the next night, expecting to revisit them the following morning. Unfortunately, however, when at the fair, the shepherd forgot both his dog and his sheep, and did not return home till the morning of the third day. His first inquiry was, whether his dog had been seen? The answer was, No.—Then he must be dead, replied the shepherd, with a tone and gesture of anguish; for I know he was too faithful to desert his charge. He instantly repaired to the beach. The dog had just sufficient strength remaining to crawl to his master's feet, and express his joy at his return; and almost immediately after expired.

"In the very severe winter betwixt the years 1794 and 1795, as a young man was looking after his father's sheep, on a common not far from Penrith in Cumberland, he had the misfortune to fall and break his leg. He was then three miles from home, no person within call, and evening approaching. Under the impulse arising from the desperate circumstances of his situation, he folded up one of his

gloves in his handkerchief, tied this about the neck of his dog, and ordered him home. The dogs that are trained to an attendance on the flocks are known to be under admirable subjection to the commands of their masters. The animal set off; and arriving at the house, scratched at the door for admittance. The parents were alarmed at his appearance; and concluding, upon taking off and unfolding the handkerchief, that some accident had undoubtedly befallen their son, they instantly set off in search of him. The dog needed no invitation. Apparently sensible that the chief part of his duty was yet to be performed, he led the way, and conducted the anxious parents directly to the spot where their son lay. The young man was taken home; and the necessary aid being procured, he was soon in a fair way of recovery." P. 157.

"I will conclude this chapter with an observation or two concerning the effect which prejudice and error have upon the treatment of animals. Perhaps, taking one nation with another, they contribute as much to preserve life as to destroy it; but in this country the prejudices and vulgar errors which operate to the destruction of animals are not only infinitely more numerous, but are also more powerful than those which tend to their preservation. Few people would think it prudent to disturb the latter, until they could substitute a rational humanity in their stead; but I wish every one to notice the former whenever they occur, in order to correct them, and prevent their further operation. I think it worth while to put down the following here.

"Toads, and the whole race of serpents and lizards, are commonly thought to be poisonous. I wish that my countrymen may in some degree relax the persecution which this opinion has raised against these animals, when they are informed, that the latest and best naturalists have determined that the viper is the only poisonous animal to be found in these kingdoms.

"The hedge-hog lies under the unmerited imputation of sucking cows, and injuring their udders. It is sufficient to observe, that, from the smallness of its mouth, the thing is absolutely impossible.

"It is usual with the children in some places in the north of England, to distinguish red butterflies by the name of

of soldiers, and white ones by that of rebels. This prejudice, which is easily accounted for, has occasioned the destruction of thousands of white butterflies.

"These may serve as specimens of the prejudices and vulgar errors which tend to the destruction of animals." P. 183.

"A man who has made some progress in humanity will practise, and abstain from a number of things with respect to animals, which a common person would never have thought of. I will venture to exemplify in a few instances. But since many of the instances of this practice and forbearance must be different in different persons, some of those which I intend to put down, may perhaps appear singular: two or three of them certainly are general."

"First, then, a man who has made some progress in humanity will perhaps abstain from oysters: I mean in cases where they are to be considered as a luxury, and not as an important article of food. There is something shocking in the idea of a man swallowing alive, at one sitting, thirty or forty animals so large as an oyster. The advocates for oyster-eating indeed generally argue, that the oyster is instantaneously killed by cutting it away from its shell. But, in the first place, it seems very improbable that life can be entirely driven out of the body of an animal by any wound, even in the most mortal part, in so very short a time as generally intervenes betwixt the opening of an oyster, and its being swallowed; and in the next place, it has been, I believe, observed by the microscope, that, in an oyster, detached from both its shells, the circulation of the juices had not entirely ceased at the distance of twenty-four hours after:

"The same person will perhaps refrain from lobsters, because they are too often put into the water before it be hot, and so left to suffer all the anguish of boiling gradually, writhing, and making a most piteous noise." P. 187.

"But some of these instances, it may perhaps be objected, seem to regard rather the feelings of the man than those of the animal. What difference

can it make to an oyster whether it be swallowed alive or dead? I answer, that if only the feelings of the man be concerned, it is enough for my purpose. The common feelings of our nature, or the peculiar feelings of individuals if they lean to the side of virtue, ought ever to be held sacred. The violation of them has a strong tendency to lead to the most dreadful enormities, and to none sooner than of those of cruelty." P. 192.

XXIX. Aristotle's Ethics and Politics, comprising his practical Philosophy. Translated from the Greek: illustrated by Introductions and Notes; the critical History of his Life; and a new Analysis of his speculative Works. By JOHN GILLIES, L. L. D. F. R. S. &c. 2 vols. 4to. pp. 832. With Indexes. 21. 2s. Strahan and Cadell.

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PREFACE—Life of Aristotle—
A new Analysis of Aristotle's speculative Works—Aristotle's Ethics, 10 Books, with Introductions.

VOL. II. Aristotle's Politics, 8 Books, with Introductions.

EXTRACT FROM THE PREFACE.

"ARISTOTLE is the most voluminous, and generally deemed the most obscure, of all the Greek writers of classic antiquity. His imperfect yet copious remains, which are now rather admired than read *, and which were formerly much read and little understood, still naturally arrange themselves in the minds of those capable of digesting them, under their original form of an encyclopedia of science; in many parts of which, the author's labours are, doubtless, excelled by those of modern philosophers; while in other parts, and those of the most important nature, his intellectual exertions remain hitherto unrivalled. It seemed high time, therefore, to draw the line between those writings of the Stagirite, which still merit the most

* "I except the Treatise on Poetry; the books on Rhetoric and the History of Animals; and the Organum, or Logic."

serious attention of the modern reader, and those of which the perusal is superseded by more accurate and more complete information. This line I have presumed to draw in the present work, by endeavouring to the best of my abilities to translate the former perspicuously and impressively, while I contented myself with giving a distinct and comprehensive analysis of the latter.

" According to the Stagirite, men are, and always have been, not only moral and social, but also political animals; in a great measure dependent for their happiness and perfection on the public institutions of their respective countries. The grand inquiry, therefore, is, what are the different arrangements that have been found under given circumstances, practically most conducive to these main and ultimate purposes? This question the author endeavoured to answer in his 'Politics,' by a careful examination of two hundred systems of legislation, many of which are not any where else described; and by proving how uniformly, even in political matters, the results of observation and experiment conspire with and confirm the deductions of an accurate and full theory. In this incomparable work, the reader will perceive the 'genuine spirit of laws,' deduced from the specific and unalterable distinctions of governments; and with a small effort of attention, may discern not only those discoveries in science, unjustly claimed by the vanity of modern writers*, but many of those improvements in practice, erroneously ascribed to the fortunate events of time and chance in these latter and more enlightened ages. The same invaluable treatise discloses the pure and perennial spring of all legitimate authority; for in Aristotle's 'Politics,' and his only government is placed on such a natural and solid foundation, as leaves neither its origin incomprehensible, nor its stability precarious: and his conclusions, had they been well weighed, must have sur-

mounted or suppressed those erroneous and absurd doctrines which long upheld despotism on the one hand, and those equally erroneous and still wilder suppositions of conventions and compacta, which have more recently armed popular fury on the other.

" In my work, throughout, I am ambitious of exhibiting fully, yet within a narrow compass, the discoveries and attainments of a man deemed the wise of antiquity; and to whom, even in modern times, it will be easier to name many superiors in particular branches of knowledge, than to find any one rival in universal science. Considered under this general aspect, my 'English Aristotle' is the natural companion and fit counterpart to my 'History of Ancient Greece,' since the learning of that country properly terminates in the Stagirite, by whom it was finally embodied into one great work; a work rather impaired than improved by the labours of succeeding ages."

EXTRACT FROM THE LIFE.

" ARISTOTLE, who flourished in Athens, when Athens was the ornament of Greece, and Greece, under Alexander, the first country on earth, was born at Stagira, towards the beginning of the ninety-ninth olympiad, eighty-five years after the birth of Socrates, and three hundred and eighty-four before the birth of Christ. The city of Stagira stood on the coast of Thrace, in a district called the Chalcidic region, and near to the innermost recess of the Strymonic gulf. It was originally built by the Andrians, afterwards enlarged by a colony from Eubœan Chalcis, and long numbered among the Greek cities of Thrace, until the conquest of Philip of Macedon extended the name of his country far beyond the river Strymon, to the confines of mount Rhodope. Stagira, as well as the neighbouring Greek cities, enjoyed the precarious dignity of independent government; it was

* " Compare, for example, the works of the modern economists, not excepting those of Hume and Smith, with the fifth book of the *Ethics*, and the first book of the *Politics*. Compare Montesquieu's *Spirit of Laws* with books third, sixth, and eighth, of the *Politics* throughout; and judge whether the admirable French work be, as the author boasts, ' Proles sine matre creat.' Compare, likewise, Machiavel's 'Prince' with the last chapters of book seventh of *Politics*, from which the Italian treatise is entirely copied. Yet none of all those authors acknowledge their obligations to Aristotle."

the ally of Athens in the Peloponnesian war, and, like other nominal allies, experienced the stern dominion of that tyrannical republic. It afterwards became subject to the city and commonwealth of Olynthus, which, having subdued Stagira and the whole region of Chalcidice, was itself besieged by Philip of Macedon, and with all its dependencies, reduced by the arms or arts of that politic prince, in the year of the 108th olympiad, and 348 years before the Christian æra. That the resistance of Stagira was obstinate, may be inferred from the severity of its punishment; the conqueror raised it to the ground. Aristotle, who was then in his thirty-seventh year, had been removed from Stagira almost in his childhood; and he appears not, in that long interval, to have ever resided in, and even rarely to have visited it. But the misfortunes which fell on that city, gave him an opportunity of showing such ardent affection for his birthplace, as is the indubitable proof of a feeling heart. Through his influence with Alexander the Great, Stagira was rebuilt; both its useful defences and its ornamental edifices were restored; its wandering citizens were collected, and reinstated in their possessions; Aristotle himself regulated their government by wise laws; and the Stagirites instituted a festival, to commemorate the generosity of Alexander their admired sovereign, and the patriotism of Aristotle their illustrious townsmen." P. 4.

" Aristotle's love of philosophy did not, like that of Plato, set him at variance with poetry. He frequently cites the poets, particularly Homer; and he prepared for his pupil a correct copy of the Iliad, which that admirer of kindred heroes always carried with him in a casket, whence this transcript was called 'The Iliad of the Casket.' The Stagirite was not only the best critic in poetry, but himself a poet of the first eminence. Few of his verses indeed have reached modern times; but the few which remain prove him worthy of sounding the lyre of Pindar; and it is not the least singularity attending this extraordinary man, that with the nicest and most subtle powers of discrimination and analysis, he unit-ed a vigorous and rich vein of poetic fancy." P. 21.

" Aristotle died, in his 63d year. His enlightened humanity was often fea-

sioned by pleasantries. Many strokes of genuine humour, little suspected by his commentators, will be found in his political writings. His smart sayings and quick repartees were long remembered and admired by those incapable of appreciating his weightier merits.

" The extraordinary and unmerited fate of these writings, while it excites the curiosity, must provoke the indignation of every friend to science. Few of them were published in his lifetime; the greater part nearly perished through neglect; and the remainder has been so grossly misapplied, that doubts have arisen whether its preservation ought to be regarded as a benefit. Aristotle's manuscripts and library were bequeathed to Theophrastus, the most illustrious of his pupils. Theophrastus again bequeathed them to his own scholar Neleus, who carrying them to Scæpīs, a city of the ancient Troas, left them to his heirs in the undistinguished mass of his property. The heirs of Neleus, men ignorant of literature and careless of books, totally neglected the intellectual treasure that had most unworthily devolved to them, until they heard that the king of Pergamus, under whose dominion they lived, was employing much attention and much research in collecting a large library. With the caution incident to the subjects of a despot, who often have recourse to concealment, in order to avoid robbery, they hid their books under ground; and the writings of Aristotle, as well as the vast collection of materials from which they had been composed, thus remained in a subterranean manufactory for many generations, a prey to dampness and to worms. At length they were released from their prison, or rather raised from the grave, and sold for a large sum, together with the works of Theophrastus, to Apellicon of Athens, a lover of books rather than a scholar; through whose labour and expense the work of restoring Aristotle's manuscripts, though performed in the same city in which they had been originally written, was very imperfectly executed. To this, not only the ignorance of the editors, but both the condition and the nature of the writings themselves, did not a little contribute. The most considerable part of his acroatic works, which are almost the whole of those now remaining, consist of little better than text.

text-books, containing the detached heads of his discourses; and through want of connexion in the matter, peculiarly liable to corruption from transcribers, and highly unsusceptible of conjectural emendation.

" What became of Aristotle's original manuscript, we are not informed; but the copy made for Apellicon was, together with his whole library, seized by Sylla, the Roman conqueror of Athens, and by him transmitted to Rome. Aristotle's works excited the attention of Tyrannion, a native of Amycus in Pontus, who had been taken prisoner by Lucullus in the Mithridatic war, and infolently transmitted, as Plutarch says, by Muræna, Lucullus's lieutenant. Tyrannion procured the manuscript by paying court to Sylla's librarian; and communicated the use of it to Andronycus of Rhodes, who flourished as a philosopher at Rome, in the time of Cicero and Pompey; and who, having undertaken the task of arranging and correcting those long-injured writings, finally performed the duty of a skilful editor.

" Though the works which formed the object of Andronycus's labours had suffered such injuries as the utmost diligence and sagacity could not completely repair, yet in consequence of those labours the Peripatetic philosophy began to resume the lustre of which it had been deprived since the days of Theophrastus; and the later adherents to that sect, as they became acquainted with the real tenets of their master, far surpassed the fame and merit of their ignorant and obscure predecessors. From the era of Andronycus's publication to that of the invention of

printing, a succession of respectable writers on civil and sacred subjects (not excepting the venerable fathers of the Christian church) confirm, by their citations and criticisms, the authenticity of most of the treatises still bearing Aristotle's name; and of more than ten thousand commentators, who have endeavoured to illustrate different parts of his works, there are incomparably fewer than might have been expected, whose vanity has courted the praise of superior discernment by rejecting any considerable portion of them as spurious. According to the most credible accounts, therefore, he composed above four hundred * different treatises, of which only forty-eight have been transmitted to the present age. But many of these last consist of several books, and the whole of his remains together still form a golden chain of Greek erudition, exceeding four times the collective bulk of the Iliad and Odyssey." P. 33.
(A specimen of the translation in our next.)

XXX. Abbé Spallanzani's Travels in the Two Sicilies. (Continued from Page 51.)

EXTRACT.

" **SCYLLA** and Charybdis, according to the fables of the poets, are two sea-monsters whose dreadful jaws are continually distended to swallow unhappy mariners; the one situated on the right, and the other on the left extremity of the Strait of Messina, where Sicily fronts Italy.

" Scylla is a lofty rock, distant twelve miles from Messina, which rises

* " Diogenes Laertius (in Vit. Aristot.) makes Aristotle's volumes amount to four hundred; Patricius Venetus, a learned professor of Padua, in the fifteenth century, endeavours to prove that they amounted to nearly double that number (Patric. Discul. Peripat.). The laborious Fabricius employs one hundred pages of his second volume, in enumerating and ascertaining Aristotle's remains; which still exceed four times the collective bulk of the Iliad and Odyssey. The whole works of Aristotle, therefore, must have contained a quantity of prose, equal to sixteen times 28,088 verses; a fact the more extraordinary, since the greater part of his writings are merely elegant and comprehensive text-books, containing the heads of his lectures; laborious but clear reasoning; and often original discoveries in the most difficult branches of science. The following passage concerning him in the French Encyclopédie, article Aristotelisme, must excite a smile of something more than surprise: ' Le nombre de ses ouvrages est prodigieux; on en peut voir les titres en Diogène Laerce, . . . encore ne sommes nous pas sûrs de les avoir tous: il est même probable que nous en avons perdu plusieurs,' &c."

almost

almost perpendicularly from the sea, on the shore of Calabria, and beyond which is the small city of the same name. Though there was scarcely any wind, I began to hear, two miles before I came to the rock, a murmur and noise, like a confused barking of dogs, and on a nearer approach readily discovered the cause. This rock in its lower part contains a number of caverns; one of the largest of which is called by the people there *Dragara*. The waves, when in the least agitated, rushing into these caverns, break, dash, throw up frothy bubbles, and thus occasion these various and multiplied sounds. I then perceived with how much truth and resemblance of nature Homer and Virgil, in their personifications of Scylla, had pourtrayed this scene, by describing the monster they drew as lurking in the darkness of a vast cavern, surrounded by ravenous, barking mastiffs, together with wolves to increase the horror.

'Here Scylla bellows from her dire abodes,
' Tremendous pest! abhor'd by man and gods!
' Hideous her voice, and with less terrors roar
' The whelps of lions in the midnight hour!' POPE.

The Greek poet, when he pourtrays the rock which is the habitation of Scylla, finishes the picture higher than the Latin, by representing it as so lofty that its summit is continually wrapped in the clouds; and so steep, smooth, and slippery, that no mortal could ascend it, though he had twenty hands and twenty feet.

Such, three thousand years ago, or nearly so, appeared the rock of Scylla, according to the observations of Homer; and such is nearly its appearance at this day.

The accuracy of this truly 'first great painter of antiquity,' which has likewise been observed by scientific travellers in other descriptions which he has given, shows that the level of the waters of the sea was at that time at nearly the same height as at present, since, had it sunk only a few fathom, it must have left the foot of the rock, which according to my observations is not very deep, entirely dry. And this I consider as one among several strong arguments, that the most remarkable

sinkings of the sea are anterior to the time of Homer.

Such is the situation and appearance of Scylla: let us now consider the danger it occasions to mariners.--- Though the tide is almost imperceptible in the open parts of the Mediterranean, it is very strong in the Strait of Messina, in consequence of the narrowness of the channel, and is regulated, as in other places, by the periodical elevations and depressions of the water. Where the flow or current is accompanied by a wind blowing the same way, vessels have nothing to fear; since they either do not enter the Strait, both the wind and the stream opposing them, but cast anchor at the entrance; or, if both are favourable, enter on full sail, and pass through with such rapidity that they seem to fly over the water. But when the current runs from south to north, and the north wind blows hard at the same time, the ship, which expected easily to pass the Strait with the wind in its stern, on its entering the channel is resisted by the opposite current, and, impelled by two forces in contrary directions, is at length dashed on the rock of Scylla, or driven on the neighbouring sands; unless the pilot shall apply for the succour necessary for his preservation. For, to give assistance in case of such accidents, four-and-twenty of the strongest, boldest, and most experienced sailors, well acquainted with the place, are stationed night and day along the shore of Messina; who, at the report of guns fired as signals of distress from any vessel, hasten to its assistance, and tow it with one of their light boats. The current, where it is strongest, does not extend over the whole Strait, but winds through it in intricate meanders, with the course of which these men are perfectly acquainted, and are thus able to guide the ship in such a manner as to avoid it. Should the pilot, however, confiding in his own skill, contemn or neglect this assistance, however great his ability or experience, he would run the most imminent risk of being shipwrecked. In this agitation and conflict of the waters, forced one way by the current, and driven in a contrary direction by the wind, it is useless to throw the line to discover the depth of the bottom; the violence of the current frequently carrying the lead

lead almost on the surface of the water. The strongest cables, though some feet in circumference, break like small cords. Should two or three anchors be thrown out, the bottom is so rocky, that they either take no hold, or, if they should, are soon loosed by the violence of the waves. Every expedient afforded by the art of navigation, though it might succeed in saving a ship in other parts of the Mediterranean, or even the tremendous ocean, is useless here. The only means of avoiding being dashed against the rocks, or driven upon the sands, in the midst of this furious contest of the winds and waves, is to have recourse to the skill and courage of these Messinese seamen.

" In proof of the truth of this assertion, I might adduce many instances related to me by persons deserving of credit. But I was myself an eye-witness to the situation of a trading vessel from Marseilles, which had one day entered the Strait by the mouth on the north side, at the time that I was on a hill looking towards the sea. The current, and a north wind, which then blew strong, being both in its favour, the vessel proceeded under full sail into, and had passed one half of, the Strait, when, on a sudden, the sky became overcast with thick clouds, and violent gusts of wind arose, which in an instant changed the direction of the current, and turned up the sea from its bottom. The mariners had scarcely time to haul the sails, while the furious waves broke over the ship on every side. Whether they merely followed the practice usual with ships in distress, or whether they were acquainted with the laudable custom of the Messinese, I cannot say; but they fired two guns: immediately upon which one of the barks employed on this service hastened to the assistance of the distressed vessel, and, taking it in tow, began to make every exertion to carry it safely into the harbour.

" If I had seen with fear and shuddering the danger of the sailors on board the vessel, which I expected every moment to be swallowed up in the waves; I beheld with wonder and pleasure the address and bravery of the Messinese mariners, who had underraken to steer safely through so tempestuous a sea the ship entrusted to their care. They extricated it from the current which impelled it towards de-

struction; changed the helm to this side or to that; reefed or let out the sails, as the wind increased or abated; avoided the impetuous shocks of the waves by meeting them with the prow, or opposing to them the side, as either method appeared most proper to break their violence; and by these and other manœuvres which I am unable to describe, these brave mariners, amid this dreadful conflict of the sea and the winds, succeeded in their undertaking, and brought the vessel safe into the harbour.

" But enough of Scylla:—we will now proceed to Charybdis. This is situated within the Strait, in that part of the sea which lies between a projection of land named *Punta Secca*, and another projection on which stands the tower called *Lanterna*, or the lighthouse, a light being placed at its top to guide vessels which may enter the harbour by night.

" On consulting the authors who have written of Charybdis, we find that they all supposed it to be a whirlpool. The first who has asserted this is Homer, who has represented Charybdis as a monster which three times in a day drinks up the water, and three times vomits it forth.

" The Count de Buffon adopts the idea of Homer in full confidence, and places Charybdis among the most celebrated whirlpools of the sea: 'Charybdis, in the Strait of Messina, absorbs and rejects the water three times in twenty-four hours.' Strabo tells us, that the fragments of ships swallowed up in this whirlpool are carried by the current to the shore of Tauromenium (the present Taormina), thirty miles distant from Charybdis. In confirmation of this tradition, an amusing though tragical anecdote is related of one Colas, a Messinean diver, who, from being able to remain a long time under the water, had acquired the surname of *Pesce* (the fish). It is reported that Frederic king of Sicily, coming to Messina purposely to see him, made trial of his abilities with a cruel kind of liberality, by throwing a golden cup into Charybdis, which, if he brought it up, was to be the reward of his resolution and dexterity. The hardy diver, after having twice astonished the spectators by remaining under water a prodigious length of time, when he plunged the third time appeared no more; but,

but, some days after, his body was found on the coast near Taormina." P. 169.

" We will now inquire what foundation there is for the saying which became proverbial; that ' he who endeavours to avoid Charybdis, dashes upon Scylla ; ' and which was applied by the ancients to those who, while they sought to shun one evil, fell into a worse.

" On this subject I likewise made inquiries of the Messinese pilots above mentioned, and to what better masters could I apply for the elucidation of such a proverb ? They told me that this misfortune, though not always, yet frequently happens, unless proper measures are taken in time to prevent it. If a ship be extricated from the fury of Charybdis, and carried by a strong southerly wind along the Strait, towards the northern entrance, it will pass out safely ; but should it meet with a wind in a nearly opposite direction, it will become the sport of both these winds, and, unable to advance or recede, be driven in a middle course between their two directions, that is to say, full upon the rock of Scylla, if it be not immediately assisted by the pilots. They added, that in these hurricanes a land wind frequently rises, which descends from a narrow pass in Calabria, and increases the force with which the ship is impelled towards the rock.

" Before I began to write on Scylla and Charybdis, I perused the greater part of the ancient authors who have written on the subject. I observe that they almost all represent these disastrous places in the most gloomy and terrifying colours, as continually the scene of tempests and shipwrecks.— These terrors and this destruction, however, they are far from exhibiting in the present times ; it rarely happening that any ships are lost in this channel, either because their pilots possess the knowledge requisite for their preservation, or because they apply for the necessary assistance. Whence then arises this great difference between ancient times and the present ? Can we suppose that Scylla and Charybdis have changed their nature and become less dangerous ? With respect to the former, we have seen that this hypothesis is contradicted by fact ; Scylla still remaining such as it was in the time of Homer ; and with regard to

the latter, from the Strait of Messina becoming narrower, Charybdis must be at present more to be feared than formerly, as it is well known that an arm, channel, or strait of the sea is the more dangerous in proportion as it is narrow. I am rather of opinion that this difference arises from the improvement of the art of navigation, which formerly, in its infancy, dared not launch into the open sea, but only creep along the shore, as if holding it with its hand—

- Alter remus aquas, alter tibi radat arenas,
- Tutus eris; medio maxima turba mari.' PROPERT. lib. iii.
- To shun the dangers of the ocean, sweep
- The fands with one oar, and with one the deep.'

" But time, study, and experience have rendered her more mature, better informed, and more courageous ; so that she can now pass the widest seas, brave the most violent tempests, and laugh at the fears of her childhood." P. 195.

" As a farther and still more convincing proof that the dangers of Charybdis and Scylla, though in themselves the same that they anciently were, have been diminished, and the dread they inspired removed, by the rapid advances to perfection which this art has made in modern times ; I shall adduce an example in another sea no less an object of terror from tempests and shipwrecks ; I mean the Cape of Good Hope, called the Stormy Cape by the first discoverer, and by the mariners of those times the Raging Lion. How dreadful were the dangers of this place, where the two oceans descending down the opposite sides of Africa met and clashed together ; where contending winds, whose power was greater in the boundless ocean ; where mountainous waves, rocks, and whirlpools threatened inevitable destruction ! What preparations, what caution, were thought necessary for the ship which was to make this dangerous passage ! Able pilots who had frequently made the voyage ; masts and yards secured by additional ropes ; a large supply of sails and cables, thicker and stronger than usual ; and a double rudder, that, in case one should be damaged, there might be another to act. The mariners were

to be fastened to their posts by strong ropes; the passengers shut down below, and the deck left clear for the crew; a number of whom stood with hatchets in their hands, ready to cut away the masts, should it be necessary. The guns were stowed in the hold as ballast; and the port-holes, windows, and every kind of aperture, carefully closed. Such were the precautions taken in the last century on doubling the Cape of Good Hope; but how few of them are now necessary to perform this voyage in perfect safety!

"The facility with which this passage may now be made, is therefore the consequence of the perfection to which the art of navigation has arrived; and the same we may conclude with respect to Charybdis and Scylla, which, at present, have nothing terrible but the name, to those who pass them with the requisite precautions."

P. 200.

XXXI. Considerations upon the State of Public Affairs, at the Beginning of the Year 1798. Part the First. France. By the Author of Considerations, &c. at the Beginning of the Year 1796, 8vo, pp. 69. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons, Hatchard.

EXTRACT.

"IT is now two years since I attempted to disentangle the war from that labyrinth of fanaticism and folly, in which its causes and its objects were lost or confounded, and to bring back the minds of men to the plain trodden path of common sense and experience. It appeared desirable at that time to separate the causes of the war from the doctrines of the French revolution, and the objects of it from the establishment of any particular form of government in France. It appeared important to show, that we were struggling for power instead of opinions, and for our commerce and marine, to which our independence is attached, instead of fanciful speculations, and notions of piety and abstract virtue, to which it is impossible for two men to attach the same ideas of right or importance. I wished to show the earth over-run rather than corrupted, and the fences of nations thrown down by cannon and soldiers,

instead of governments disturbed by novelties and philosophers; to disperse the fog and vapour of metaphysics, and let the light fall upon the real barriers of Europe, thrown down or removed by the perfidy of treaties, and the violence of arms; to remind men of ancient limits, of territorial rights, of national liberty and national character; and to hold up to view the monstrous ambition of the enemy, which has drugged every folly, and pointed every crime.

"I know I have had, and have still, the misfortune to differ from great authority; but even now that the question is come to the impending moment of decision, and that we are about to fight, perhaps in our own court-yards, for all that is dear to us; I cannot see any reason to induce me to change that opinion. I confess it is not now the French revolution that I dread, but the French greatness. I would to the full as willingly behold the country conquered by the legions of the republic, as by those of Lewis the Fourteenth. It is not the form of government in France, it is not her atheism, her spirit of plunder and cruelty, but France herself, that I hold up as the object of just apprehension; and they who maintain the opposite doctrine would do well, I think, to consider, whether it does not follow, from their mode of reasoning, that under her ancient form, and her old principles, we might now submit to her pretensions, and receive the law from her. For if it be not her power and usurpations against which we are contending, but certain tenets and principles of hers, it appears to me, that if it were not for these tenets, we might consent to those usurpations; and that we might behold the enormous increase of her power, without apprehension or interest, if it were not made or maintained by these principles. But I, for one, will never fight with the colour of her cockade; and if it were the fate of these warlike kingdoms, and this imperial crown, to acknowledge a master (which may never be), I would rather that it were such an one as this, who should crush and extirpate at a blow, than the politic tyrant, who might spare us for his triumph, or incorporate us with his slaves. I consider conquest as a full and final consummation of things, beyond which my eye and my imagination cannot pierce.

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pierce. I see nothing beyond, nothing susceptible of alternative and discrimination. All the display and circumstance of terror, with which a Jacobin conqueror can surround himself, cannot add a single motive to a free and generous bosom, for a mortal resistance, which it would not have felt, if the same troops had been led by a Turenne or a Condé. I would rather rouse the spirit of the country than its fears; and I disdain to treat a nation of soldiers like a little garrison, animated indeed to a brave resistance, but capable of being worn out, and capitulating at the last." P. 1.

STATE OF FRANCE.

"I THINK nothing worth serious inquiry in the state of France, but the capital she possesses; the fuel and materials of a war, doomed never to expire but with the substance it consumes. Having climbed her meridian arch of anarchy, and high in her mid-career of rage and ruin, she has set fire to the pillars of the earth, and decreed the general conflagration. Happy for mankind that she has nursed the flame with so much of *berown*. Happy that she fans it still from her own lungs, and supplies it with her own cinders. Like the giants of antiquity she has made the war with her fields and soil,—She has hurled her forests and her mountains at her enemy,—Here she devoted a navy, and there an army,—Here she immolated her commerce, there she severed her colonies. Feverish with guilty fears, and haunted by the furies of her impiety, she lopped her own members, and struck at her own vitals;—one blow amputated her nobility, another her clergy, a third her merchants, a fourth her fleets. Her great measures, as she called her great crimes, required now a class of age,—now a description of citizens,—now a description of property: and all as sacrifices and victims; all integrant portions and members of herself, and all irrevocably doomed and devoted. Who haē heard of boynights for the navy, or the line,—who of lots for

the militia? The requisition swept off the population of the country, without detail or distinction. Who of finance and taxes? Confiscation, plunder, auctions, supplied every thing. The national property,—the emigrant property,—the church property,—the corporation property,—estates, villas, convents, woods, commons, every thing—has been sold and resold, plundered and replundered, till the fee-simple of the nation, till the very soil of all France together, has been alienated I know not how often. Is there any longer any property in France? that is to say, is there any law or any security for any possession beyond the occupancy of the day? Has any man more in his lands than the usufruct of them? Is there any species of wealth secure or permanent?—Is there any thing valuable but in proportion to its faculties of conveyance and concealment? No: the whole is under the rapacious hand of the remorseless kings;—under the sovereign without law and above law. *The Whole* acknowledges and obeys his unlimited physical dominion; and in computing his power and means we have nothing to do but to subtract from his mighty whole, those calamities and privations which he has inflicted upon his state, or which visibly approach and hang over it.

"From the capital, therefore, of his population, deduct the flower of his fourteen armies, who have left their bones in the fields and hospitals of Lombardy and Germany, a capital he misses with faintness and debility, and which cannot be repaired from the sheep's blood of Italy or Flanders, a vile experiment, and perhaps fatal. Deduct two-thirds at least of his manufacturers, and one of his husbandmen: above sixty thousand persons once employed in the receiving and defrauding of his revenue, five-sixths of his military and mercantile marine; one half of his nobles and his priests, the deplorable and incalculable mass of infants, of aged, and of women, who have perished for want of succours*; deduct those who have died in

* "See the confessions of the Directory, June 1797, message to the Council of Five Hundred. See also a book called *The Cruelties of the Jacobins*, published in Paris in 1795. It is here stated, that two millions of persons have been massacred in France during the revolution, of which 250,000 are said to have been women, and 230,000 children. This calculation does not include any persons killed in arms."

jails and hospitals of neglect and famine; deduct his murdered and his fled *." P. 37.

FOREIGN RELATIONS.

"I HAVE carefully abstained (excepting in one necessary instance) from presenting the moral picture of the country; but when I behold the sultans of the Luxembourg committing the ambassador of Portugal prisoner to their Seven-Towers, when I hear them refuse to receive the ministers of America till they have purchased their admission at the price of 400,000 dollars, I cannot omit to remark, that their foreign relations are *nothing*, excepting those alone where the terror of their arms and the corruption of their principles has unnerved and dissolved the energy of the human character. When I see them pillage every magazine in every commune of their empire, of what they call English manufactures, and transfer, by a decree of their paramount authority over all the laws and conventions of nations, the neutral privilege from the ship to the cargo †, that is, effectually become privateers and pirates, cruising against every flag and every nation, then I am obliged to consider these acts as a virtual renunciation of all legitimate intercourse and commercial communication with the maritime powers of Europe, and to set down

this article under the head of their privations.

"The plunder of the warehouses is no mean instance of the physical dominion of the directory; it affords a strong confirmation of the position I have laid down, and leads by rapid steps to the agent of government from the counter and the magazine into the vineyard and the farm. It is in vain for the French orators to contend, and it would be useless to succeed in that absurdity, that the measure is not of a revolutionary nature, and that it is lawful in war to seize the goods of an enemy. These merchandises have long ceased to be the property of Englishmen. They have been paid for long since by the Swede, the Dane, or the American, who had undertaken to supply the necessities of France with commodities with which she is not able to dispense. How many decrees, messages, arrêtés, associations, and menaces, have already proved nugatory upon this object alone? The property, however, is either neutral or French: French, if it has been paid for to the importer; if not, neutral. I am speaking of the thing itself, not of the right, which is French in either case. The executive government enters into every warehouse throughout the whole empire upon the same day ‡, and plunders every commodity which its officers are pleased or directed to call English, and the measure is not revolutionary? No, cer-

* "Many foreigners have been deceived in this respect by the abundance of population in Paris; that capital has, I believe, considerably increased: in a proclamation of the Directory, February 16, 1796, it is asserted that it has increased by 150,000 souls. The numerical disproportion of the sexes, however, is acknowledged by every one I have conversed with, native or foreigner, who has lately been at Paris, to be very striking. But the increase of Paris is one of the surest signs of the general depopulation. Lyons, Nantes, Rouen, &c. have diminished in a ratio of one-third; and the whole of the departments present a very visible spectacle of solitude and desertion: all public works are abandoned; the roads infested with robbers: all signs, effects, and causes of depopulation. The divorces in Paris alone, for the last year, amount to 1043; the marriages, which is extraordinary, considering that name now embraces every kind of concubinage, to no more than 6538. What causes of depopulation!"

† "The late edict of the five lawgivers takes away the protection of the neutral flag altogether, and confiscates the ship's bottom, if it has enemies' property on board. Every mercantile vessel of every nation, therefore, is good prize; for it is impossible they can return without cargoes, though they should bring nothing English with them. We manufacture for almost all Europe, even for France herself: the East and West-India commodities are almost entirely British property, and will now subject every ship to condemnation. How fortunate for Europe that France has no navy!"

‡ "4th January 1798."

tainly,

tainly, it is constitutional, in the truest and fullest sense: it is of the very nature and essence of the constitution itself; not irregular, not eccentric, not extraordinary; it is the true legitimate undoubted issue of a constitution of public terror, rapine, and banishment; of a government of usurpers and robbers; of a system of armed fraud and perfidious despotism. It is the law of emancipated France, and the privilege of victorious Frenchmen." P. 55.

"To me, I confess, the menaces of the French appear like those of other madmen. The ravings of the Luxembourg are like the ravings of the Bicêtre—Do this, or give me that, or I will stab or drown myself. Yield to me, says France, or—what? I will come and perish on your shores:—throw down your arms, or I will dash myself upon your coasts;—worship me, or I will devote hecatombs of my own children;—acknowledge my superiority, or I will tear out my own vitals! This I consider as the real sense and meaning of her late papers, of her public declarations, if that can be called sense and meaning, which is the very paroxysm of delirium and folly.—I cannot dread the madness of an enemy, I think it rather our own safety and our own arms. Can I see with trepidation or regret his legions rotting in the marshes of Calais and Ostend, or blighted upon the bleak hills of Normandy? Can I regard 'the army of England,' but as our glory and our prize, if ever (I know not by what help from heaven or from hell) it were to be embarked upon the channel? Shall we hesitate to provoke, and call, with our prayers at least, that glorious issue of the war, in which we may all partake; but which, without some power above us shall obscure and worse-confound, and impel the enemy upon his ruin, we dare not hope for? When the first Gaul was at the foot of the Capitol, when the senate and the people, the liberty and the gods of Rome were besieged in a single citadel, and the very name of a nation, destined to the empire of the world, hung doubtful upon the issue, the Roman did not descend to meet him there; but waited with ardent hope till he had climbed the glacis, then drove him down the steep Tarpeian with resistless impulse and accumulating ruin; and must not we have courage to expect him on

the fatal shores, where the armada was wrecked, and from every cliff of which we have beheld his fleets led captive towards our harbours, and the ocean covered with his fragments and his shame?

"We hear of Rome and Carthage every day and in every debate, even to puerility and pedantry, but without profiting much, I think, either as to policy or magnanimity, from their example. It seems, however, certain, that if Carthage could have anticipated events, or have lived over again her own history, she would not have been subdued and extirpated a second time. We, therefore, who have the advantage of her experience, and can contemplate along with her ruin the causes of it, ought to bring this war to a very different issue and conclusion than she did; our enemies too, those dottrels and apes of Rome, might at least profit enough by the same knowledge, to despair of success by the present means: for had Carthage displayed that vigour before she had given up her hostages, her fleets, and her arms, which she did after, the event of the contest could not have been the same. The modern Romans, therefore, have acted with impolicy and absurdity, in pawning our lands, and assigning our revenues, and raising loans upon our commerce and our property, and dooming our crown and liberty, before we have made those surrenders which Carthage made; because they have placed us in the situation in which Carthage would have been if Rome had made these declarations to her; in which Carthage would have kept, like us, her fleets, her arms, her fortresses, and her Hannibal; and in which the event of the Carthaginian war must have been different from what it was.

"These, therefore, are the objects to which I would direct the attention of Englishmen at the present moment. When they hear the loud and lofty threats of their intemperate enemy, they should hear his groans also; when they see his hosts gather on the hills of Brittany, they should see, at the same time, the hollowness of his centre: they should *despise with prudence*, as their fathers did, the vanity and insolence of a people, whose colossal greatness has hitherto been equalled and subdued by the moral greatness of their own country; they should consider

fider their impotent menaces but as a challenge to the solid and sober virtues which have so often defeated them; and contrast once more, with confidence and pride in heaven, and in themselves, the sterling ingenuous worth and valour of the British character, to the drunken cries and fury of a multitude, defined to feed the fishes of our seas, or to take nothing from us but our prisons and our graves." P. 61.

XXXII. Essays on the Picturesque, as compared with the Sublime and Beautiful; and on the Use of studying Pictures, for the Purpose of improving real Landscape. By UVEDALE PRICE, Esq. Vol. II. 8vo. pp. 432. 6s. Robson.

CONTENTS.

ESSAY on Artificial Water, and on the Method in which Picturesque Banks may be practically formed.—On Decorations—On Architecture and Buildings.

EXTRACTS

FROM THE PREFACE.

"THE three Essays which I here offer to the public, though detached from each other, and from the Essay on the Picturesque, are, in respect to the matter they contain, and the suite of ideas they present, perfectly connected. In all that I have written I have had two chief purposes in view: the one, to point out the best method of forming our taste and judgment in regard to the effect of all visible objects, universally; the other, to show that the same method, and the same principles, may be applied to the improvement of those particular objects, with which each man is individually concerned.

"The first step towards acquiring an exact taste and judgment in respect to visible objects, is to gain an accurate knowledge of their leading characters; I therefore, in my first Essay, traced the character of the Picturesque, its qualities, effects, and attractions, as distinct from those of the sublime and the beautiful, through the different works of nature and art.

"The next step was to show, that

not only the effect of picturesque objects, but of all visible objects whatever, is to be judged of by the great leading principles of painting; which principles, though they are really founded in nature, and totally independent of art, are, however, most easily and usefully studied in the pictures of eminent painters. On these two points, which, I trust, I have never lost sight of in any part of my work, rests the whole force of my argument. If I have succeeded in establishing them, the system of modern gardening, which, besides banishing all picturesque effects, has violated every principle of painting, is of course demolished." P. v.

"There are persons, for whose opinion I have a very high respect, who, though they agree with me in the distinct character of the picturesque, object to the term itself; on the ground, that, from its manifest etymology, it must signify *all* that can be represented in pictures with effect. I had flattered myself with having shown, that, according to that definition, the word can hardly be said to have a distinct, appropriate meaning: by placing this matter in a different, possibly a more convincing light, I may be lucky enough to obviate their only objection. It has occurred to me, that the term (which is in effect the same in English, French, and Italian) was probably invented by painters to express a quality, not merely essential to their art, but in a manner peculiar to it; the treasures of the sublime and the beautiful, it shares in common with sculpture; but the picturesque is almost exclusively its own. A writer of eminence lays great stress on the advantage which painting possesses over sculpture, in being able to give value to insignificant objects, and even to those which are offensive: many such objects are highly picturesque, in spite of their offensive qualities, and in a degree, that has sometimes caused it to be imagined, that they were rendered so by means of them. I remember a picture of Woverman's, in which the principal objects were a dung-cart, just loaded; some carrion lying on the dung; a dirty fellow with a dirty shovel; the dunghill itself; and a dog, exhibited in an attitude that promised to add to it. These most unfavourable materials the painter had worked up with so much skill, that the picture was

was viewed by every one with delight. Imagine all this in marble ever so skilfully executed; it would be detestable. This certainly does tend to prove, that sculpture cannot represent with effect, objects merely picturesque. I do not mean to say, that the grave dignity of that noble art does not admit of a mixture of the picturesque; it is clear, however, that the ancients admitted it with a caution bordering upon timidity. The modern sculptors, on the other hand, have perhaps gone as much into the other extreme; and to that we probably owe the magnificent defects of Michael Angelo, the affectations of Bernini, and the pantomimes of some of his followers. It appears to me, that if the whole of this be considered, it completely takes away every objection to my use of the term; for if what I have stated be just, it proves that by *pictur-esque* is meant, not all that can be expressed with effect in painting, but that which painting can, and sculpture cannot express. It is, in reality, a very just distinction between the powers of the only two arts imitative of visible objects, with respect to one class of those objects; and the etymology of the word, as I have accounted for it, instead of contradicting, sanctions the use I have made of it, and the distinction I have given to the character."

P. xii.

EFFECTS OF WATER IN LANDSCAPE.

"THE effects of water are always so attractive, that wherever there is any appearance of it in a landscape, whether real or painted, to that part the eye is irresistibly carried, and to that it always returns. All the objects immediately round it are consequently most examined: where they are ugly, or insipid, the whole scene is disgraced; but where they are interesting, their influence seems to extend over the whole scenery, which thence assumes a character of beauty that does not naturally belong to it.

"This strong attractive power of water, while it shows how much the immediate banks ought to be studied, suggests, likewise, another consideration, with regard to its position in the general view from the house. In places where the views are confined to the nearer object, the water (as at *Glenheim*) frequently occupies a very

considerable portion of the scenery, and mixes with almost every part of it. But where, from a high station, the eye surveys a more extended country, the appearance of water which may be produced by art, bears no proportion to that extent, though it may greatly enliven parts of it. In such situations, therefore, the placing of the water ought very much to be guided by the objects (both the near and distant ones), to which it will serve as a sort of focus. It may happen, for instance, that the parts which would be most easily floated, are placed amidst open common fields, or amidst hedges without trees, or, what is worse, with stripped elms, or pollard willows; that they are backed by hills of bad shapes, and divided by square map-like inclosures. A piece of water in that situation would infallibly draw the attention towards those objects, which otherwise might have escaped notice; and the eye, though it might be hurt by them, will still be forced towards that part: for our eyes, like moths, will always be attracted by light, and no experience can prevent them from returning to it. On that account, the position of water can never be a matter of indifference. If the size of it be considerable, and the objects in that direction ugly, or uninteresting, it will make their effects more conspicuous, but by no means compensate those defects. On the other hand, the smallest appearance of water, a mere light in the landscape, may answer a very essential purpose—that of leading the attention to those parts which are most worthy of notice: and, therefore, wherever there are the happiest groups of trees, or buildings, the richest distances, the most pleasing boundaries of hills, or mountains, in that direction the water, if possible, should be placed, so as to blend with them into one composition. It will then serve, not merely as a brilliant light in the landscape, but likewise as a bond which unites all those parts together; whereas, if it be placed at a distance from them, the eye is distract ed between objects which it would like to fix upon, and a fascinating splendour, the influence of which it cannot resist."

P. 59.

ON THE FORMS OF LAKES.

"EXCELLENT hints with regard to the general forms of lakes, might be taken

taken from pools, on a scale so very diminutive, as to excite the ridicule of those who attend to size only, and not to character. But as Gainsborough used to bring home roots, stones, and mosses, from which he formed, and then studied fore-grounds in miniature; and as Leonardo da Vinci advised painters to enrich and vary their conceptions by attending to flaws and breaks in old walls, that is, to the lucky effects and combinations, which in the meanest objects are produced by accident and neglect,—I may venture to recommend many of the pools in old gravel-pits in heathy commons, as affording most useful studies in this branch of landscape-gardening. Such lakes in miniature strongly point out the effect of accident and neglect, in creating varied and picturesque compositions, with the advantages that might be taken of such accidents; and they likewise show, what is by no means the least instructive part, the process by which such forms and compositions are undefinably produced. The manner in which these pits are formed seems to be nearly this: after a certain quantity of gravel has been dug out, and it becomes less plentiful, the workmen very naturally pursue it wherever it appears; leaving heaps of mere mould in the middle, and projections of it on the sides: and, as they want the gravel and not the surface, they pick it from under the turf, which by that process is undermined, and falls in, in different degrees, and in various breaks. Sometimes the turf and the upper mould are taken off, in order to get at the gravel which lies beneath, and are cast upon the surface of another part, the height of which is consequently raised above the general level; while in places where roads had been made to carry out the gravel, the ground is proportionably low, and the descent gradual. By means of these operations, in which

no idea of beauty or picturesque composition was ever thought of, all the varieties of smooth turf, of broken ground, of coves, inlets, projections, islands, are often formed; while heath, broom, furze, and low bushes, which vary the summit, are in proportion to the scale of the whole: and that whole is a lake in miniature, of transparent water, surrounded by the most varied banks. I have often thought, that if such a gravel-pit with clear water were near a house, the banks of it might, with great propriety and effect, be dressed with kalmeas, rhododendrons, azaleas, andromedas, without any shrub too large for its scale; and that so beautiful a lake in miniature might be made, with every thing in such exact proportion, as to present no bad image of what one might suppose to be a full-sized lake in Liliput.

" But there are likewise other pools on a scale equally diminutive, the character of which forms a singular contrast to such as I have just mentioned: for as in those, a great part of the beauty arises from the proportion between the size of the water and that of its accompaniments; so, in the others, the striking effect is produced by their disproportion. These last are found in forests, and in woody commons, where the ground is bold and unequal. In such places it often happens that a high broken bank enriched with wild vegetation, sometimes with a single tree upon it, sometimes with a group of them, hangs over a small pool*: in a scene of that kind, the very circumstance of the smallness of the water gives a consequence to the objects immediately round it, which a larger expanse would diminish in proportion to that expanse. Another great source of effect arises from the large mass of shadow, which from the overhanging bank and trees, is reflected in so small a mirror; and also from the tints of vegetation, of

* " This style of scenery is very poetically and characteristically described by Mr. Mason in the first book of his English Garden:

" —Nature here
Has with her living colours form'd a scene
Which Ruyfidal best might rival—crystal lakes,
O'er which the giant oak, himself a grove,
Flings his romantic branches, and beholds
His reverend image in the expanse below."

broken foil, and of the sky, which are revived in it*. All these circumstances give a surprising richness and harmony to every thing within the field of vision, as you look at such a composition; the water being as it were the focus in which that richness and harmony are concentrated, and whence they again seem to expand themselves on all that surrounds it. In many gentlemen's places there are opportunities of producing such effects of water with little expense or difficulty, in no part of which a good imitation of a lake or river on a large scale could be made at any expense. There are hollows, for instance, in sequestered spots, partly surrounded by such banks as I have described, which might easily be made to contain water: there is often a small stream near such a spot, running without any particular beauty in its own bed, but which, by an easy change in its course, might be made to fall into the hollow; and thus appear to be, and really become, the source of the still water beneath. These easy and cheap improvements would give a new and lively interest to the most interesting woodland scenery, and would afford opportunities of trying a variety of picturesque embellishments." P. 90.

GRAVEL AND TERRACE WALKS COMPARED.

"A BROAD dry walk near the house is indispensable to the comfort

of every gentleman's habitation: in the old style such walks were very commonly paved; in the modern, they are generally gravelled. The character and effect of walks, like that of rivers (though not in the same degree), depend very much on their immediate boundaries; that of a gravel walk is of pared ground, than which nothing can be more meagre or formal, or have a poorer effect in a foreground; and however the line may be broken and disguised by low shrubs partially concealing its edge, it still will be meagre; and if the grass be suffered to grow over those edges more strongly than in the other mowed parts, it will look slovenly, but neither rich nor picturesque. But the paved terrace, in its least ornamented state, is bounded by a parapet; and the simple circumstance of hewn stone and a coping, without any farther addition, has a finished and determined form, together with a certain massiveness, which is wanting to the other; on which account, and from the opposition of its colour to the hue of vegetation, such mere walls are sometimes introduced as parts of the foreground by the greatest painters. When the walk before the door is of gravel, and that gravel is succeeded by the mowed grass of the pleasure-ground, and that again by the grass of the lawn, nothing can be more insipid: if broken by trees and shrubs only, however judiciously they may be disposed, still the whole makes a comparatively flat and un-

* "The circumstance of tints being *revived* by means of water, is little attended to but by painters. It is a rule in their art, that no tint should be introduced into a picture, without its being revived again in other places; in short, that it should in a manner echo from one part of the composition to another, and that no considerable part should be without it: a rule, by no means founded on the mere practice of the art, but on repeated observations of the most harmonious combinations in nature. Now, water, by repeating not only the brilliancy, but the hue of the sky, acts as a powerful harmonizer in respect to colour, and for that reason few compositions are totally without it. A small quantity, however, will answer that purpose; often better than a larger expanse, the brilliancy of which might be too powerful for the rest of the picture. This will account for the seemingly insignificant bits of water that we see in pictures, and also for the pleasure which lovers of painting feel, when, after viewing any natural scenery deficient in that respect, they catch a glimpse of water, however trifling: a pleasure, which arises not merely from its brilliancy, but also from that revival and renewal of colour, by means of which the beauty and harmony of the whole is so greatly augmented.

"These remarks may be said to belong more immediately to the art of painting; but whatever tends to add new pleasures to those which we already receive from the common objects and effects of nature, cannot be foreign to the purpose of this work."

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“I have already mentioned the defects of the common gravel walk in the immediate foreground, compared with the old terrace walk, considering them both in their simplest state: the terrace with a mere parapet; the gravel walk with a pared edge. And here I must mention another essential defect in the gravel walk, namely, that its boundary is not only meagre and formal, but incapable of receiving ornament, or being varied with any effect. The parapet, on the contrary, is capable of admitting a thousand ornaments and variations in its form; and, what is very material, of

those which arise from a mixture of the loose forms, and fresh tints of vegetation, united with the works of art. Should the solid wall be thought too heavy—a balustrade, without destroying the breadth, gives a play of light and shadow of the most striking kind, which occurs in the works of all the painters: on the top of the coping, urns, vases, flower-pots, &c. of every shape and size find their place; vines, jasmines, and other beautiful and fragrant climbing plants, might add their loose festoons to the sculptured ones, twining round and between the balusters, clustering on the top, and varying the height of the wall in every style and degree the planter might direct. In the summer,—oranges, myrtles, and ‘each plant of firm and fragrant leaf,’ would most happily mix with them all; and if, instead of common pots and tubs, vases of more elegant forms were substituted, they, as well as the plants contained in them, would add to the general richness and variety.” P. 160.

ROMAN, FLORENTINE, AND VENETIAN MASTERS.

“MANY of the first great masters of the revived art, Leonardo da Vinci, M. Angelo, Raphael, G. Romano, and others, were architects as well as painters; and several buildings were executed after their designs, and under their inspection. But I am now considering architecture as it appears in pictures, and mixed with other objects; and among these great artists Raphael is the only one, who has left a number of historical compositions in which buildings and architecture form so principal a part, as may enable us to form a judgment of the result of the whole. The general character of his architecture, like that of his figures, is a sedate and simple grandeur, equally free from superfluous ornament, and from strongly marked contrasts. Neither in his works, nor those of his followers, shall we find many instances of those singular effects of perspective, of those groups and clusters of buildings crossing each other in various directions, of those splendid artifices, which may be called the picturesque of regular and entire architecture, in

* Mr. Walpole on Modern Gardening,

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richness of colouring, by the artists of the Venetian school, and more particularly by their chief boast, the divine Titian. As far as I can recollect, Titian has seldom, if ever, introduced any finished pieces of architecture, into the near parts of his mere landscapes; nor indeed any buildings as principal objects occupying a large part of the picture, such as we see in the landscapes of some other painters, and particularly of Claude Lorraine: but in his historical pictures (to use a very common, but improper term of distinction) columns, arches, balustrades, serve as magnificent frames to those back-grounds, which have been models to all succeeding painters.

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—admirably accord with the profusion of figures with which he has peopled them, and with the studied contrasts of groups and attitudes, and the richness of their dresses. As his subjects were frequently festivals and banquets, to these may often be added the rich tints and ornaments of gold and silver plate, of urns, cups, vases, &c. The immense scale of his pictures, the facility with which the whole is conducted, and the extreme clearness and brilliancy of that whole, have so captivated his countrymen, that his works are more celebrated at Venice, than even those of his more exalted rival, Titian.

“Tintoret, less dignified in his figures than either of his contemporaries, was full of singular and capricious inventions; and his architecture partakes of the same character.*”

P. 312.

GAINSBOROUGH AND SIR JOSHUA REYNOLDS.

“I MAY, perhaps, be thought by many of my readers, to have indulged myself too long in my passion for village scenery. I must repeat as my excuse, what I said when I first entered on the subject, that ‘there is no scene where such a variety of forms and embellishments may be introduced at so small an expence, and without any thing fantastical or unnatural, as in a village; and where the lover of painting, and the lover of humanity, may find so many sources of amusement and interest.’ All the liberal arts are justly said to soften our manners,

and not suffer them to be fierce and savage. None, I believe, has a juster claim to that high praise, than the art of painting. Whoever has looked with delight at Gainsborough’s representations of cottages and their inhabitants; at Greuze’s interesting pictures; at the various groups and effects in those of the Dutch masters, will certainly feel, from that recollection, an additional delight in viewing similar objects and characters in nature: and I believe it is difficult to look at any objects with pleasure (unless where it arises from brutal or tumultuous emotions), without feeling that disposition of mind, which tends towards kindness and benevolence: and surely whatever creates such a disposition, by increasing our pleasures and enjoyments, cannot be too much cultivated. I have just mentioned Gainsborough’s pictures; when he lived at Bath, I made frequent excursions with him into the country. He was a man of an eager irritable mind, though warmly attached to those he loved; of a lively and playful imagination, yet at times severe and sarcastic; but I have frequently remarked, that when we came to cottage or village scenes, to groups of children, or to any objects of that kind, which struck his fancy, his countenance would take an expression of particular gentleness and complacency. I have often too observed Sir Joshua Reynolds, when children have been playing before him; the most affectionate parent could not gaze at them with a look more expressive of kindness and interest. He was indeed the mildest and most benevolent of men; but

* “No painter, whose subjects were serious, ever placed the human figure so much, and so frequently out of the perpendicular, as Tintoret. The same liberty could not so well be taken with architecture; but there is a drawing of his, that was in Sir Joshua Reynolds’s collection, and is now in my possession, where the subject has enabled him to indulge his favourite propensity on a building. He has represented the dream of a pope; who is lying in a stately bed adorned with a canopy, and supported by emblematical figures: his attendants are sleeping in the room in various and singular attitudes. Over the door, a cathedral church seems to be tumbling toward the Pope, while a monk on his knees, with his hand stretched towards the portico, appears in the act of supporting it. Rays of light issue from the church, and, illuminating the face of the Pope, glance upon the different ornaments of the bed, and on the sleeping attendants. Two other figures are at the door, the one lifting up the curtain of it, and discovering part of an inner room, in which is a strong effect of sunshine; the other advancing into the bed-chamber. The whole composition, in point of singularity and richness of invention, of no less singular effects of light and shadow, of the style and disposition of the ornaments of the bed, the tables, and of all the furniture, is in the highest degree characteristic of that wild and capricious, but truly original painter.”

in that look was clearly expressed the mixture of interest which arose from his art, and which seemed to give additional force to his natural philanthropy.

"With respect to the particular subject of this Essay, although by the study of pictures a man will gain but little knowledge of architecture as a science, yet, by seeing the grandest and most beautiful specimens of that art displayed in the most favourable points of view, and most happily grouped with each other and with the surrounding objects, he may certainly acquire a just idea of their forms and effects, and their connexion with scenery. He will also gain a knowledge, not easily acquired by any other means—that of the infinitely diversified characters and effects of broken and irregular buildings with their accompaniments; and of all that in them, and in similar objects, is justly called picturesque, because they belong to pictures, and to the productions of no other art.

"The more I reflect on the whole of the subject, the more I am convinced, that the study of the principles of painting in the works of eminent painters, is the best method of acquiring an accurate and comprehensive taste and judgment, in all that regards the effects and combinations of visible objects; and thence I conclude, that unless we are guided by those enlarged principles, which, instead of confining our ideas to the peculiar and exclusive modes of one nation, or one period, direct our choice towards whatever is excellent in every age and every country—we may indeed have fine houses, highly polished grounds and gardens, and beautiful ornamental buildings, but we shall not have that general combination of form and effect, which is by far the most essential point; which makes amends for the want of particular beauties, but the absence of which, no particular beauties can compensate."

the Rev. Thomas Mackay, Minister of Lairg, Sutherlandshire. By WILLIAM MACKAY, late Second Officer of the Ship. 8vo. pp. 59-28. *Debrett, Sewell.*

SKETCH OF THE NARRATIVE.

THE Juno, Captain Alexander Bremner, a ship of 450 tons burden, sailed 29th May 1795, from Rangoon, the chief town of Pegu, with a cargo of teak wood for Madras: her crew consisted of fifty-three men, chiefly Lascars, with a few Europeans, the captain's wife, her maid, and some Malays, in all seventy-two souls. From the damage the vessel sustained by striking on a hard sand-bank, she sprung a leak, and on the 18th of June became a wreck. June 25th, two persons died of want, and from that period the greater part of the ship's crew successively shared the same fate. July 10th, the wreck drifted to the coast of Aracan, where the survivors, from their weak state, were landed with the utmost difficulty. On recovering their strength they were conducted by the natives to Ramoo, one of the East India Company's settlements, and humanely treated by Lieutenant Towers, the commandant. Mrs. Bremner, Thomas Johnson the gunner, and the narrator W. Mackay, were the only Europeans that were saved.

EXTRACTS.

"ON the morning of the eleventh day (July 1), Mrs. Bremner found her husband dead in her arms, and our strength was so reduced it was with the utmost difficulty we threw his body over-board, after stripping off part of his clothes for the use of his wife. In the course of this day two others died in the mizen, and two more in the fore-top, with which we had of late little or no communication, being no longer able to come down the rigging, or speak loud enough to be heard at that distance. After the gale abated, several of the Lascars went forward, and our number was now

XXXIII. *Narrative of the Shipwreck of the Juno, on the Coast of Aracan, and of the singular Preservation of Fourteen of her Company on the Wreck, without Food, during a Period of Twenty-three Days: in a Letter to his Father,*

now so diminished, the two tops held us all.

"I can give very little account of the rest of the time. The sensation of hunger was now lost in that of weakness; and when I could get a supply of fresh water, I was comparatively easy. Hitherto we had occasionally found the nights chilly, and as our strength decreased, so did our ability to endure the cold. The heavy rains by which we were drenched (though beneficial in other respects) rendered it more severe, in so much that after sun-set our limbs were quite benumbed, our teeth chattered, and we sometimes feared we should die of extreme cold under a vertical sun. As the heat increased, it diffused its influence throughout our whole frames; we exposed first one side, then the other, until our limbs became pliant; and as our spirits revived we indulged ourselves in conversation, which sometimes even became cheerful. But as the meridian heat approached, the scorching rays renewed our torments, and we wondered how we could have wished the rain to cease.

"Of those who were not immediately near me I knew little, unless by their cries. Some struggled hard, and died in great agony; but it was not always those whose strength was most impaired that died the easiest, though in some cases it might be so. I particularly remember the following instances: Mr. Wade's boy, a stout and healthy lad, died early, and almost without a groan; while another of the famine age, but a less promising appearance, held out much longer. The fate of these unfortunate boys differed also in another respect, highly deserving of notice. Their fathers were both in the fore-top when the boys were taken ill. The father of Mr. Wade's, hearing of his son's illness, answered with indifference, 'that he could do nothing for him,' and left him to his fate. The other, when the accounts reached him, hurried down, and watching for a favourable moment, crawled on all-fours along the weather gunwale to his son, who was in the mizen rigging. By that time, only three or four planks of the quarter-deck remained, just over the weather quarter-gallery; and to this spot the unhappy man led his son, making him fast to the rail to prevent his being washed away. Whenever the boy was

seized with a fit of reaching, the father lifted him up, and wiped away the foam from his lips: and if a shower came, he made him open his mouth to receive the drops, or gently squeezed them into it from a rag. In this affecting situation, both remained four or five days, till the boy expired. The unfortunate parent, as if unwilling to believe the fact, raised the body, gazed wistfully at it, and when he could no longer entertain any doubt, watched it in silence till it was carried off by the sea, then wrapping himself in a piece of canvas, sunk down, and rose no more, though he must have lived two days longer, as we judged from the quivering of his limbs when a wave broke over him.

"This scene made an impression even on us, whose feelings were in a manner dead to the world, and almost to ourselves, and to whom the sight of misery was now become habitual." P. 18.

"ABOUT noon we observed a large party of natives coming along the beach to the spot where the men lay, and it was now our attention was roused to observe in what manner they treated our companions. They immediately kindled a fire, which we rightly concluded was for dressing rice; soon afterwards they came down to the water's edge, waving handkerchiefs as a signal for us to come ashore. It is utterly impossible to describe our emotions at this moment. Between hope and fear we were in a state of distraction; though we saw they had no boats, and if they had, the surf would prevent their making use of them, still we entertained hopes they would devise some means of coming off to us. My life, which some time before was a burden to me, now became infinitely precious; and though I observed pieces of plank floating off from the ship, I was afraid to trust myself on one of them. I proposed to the gunner and Serang to assist me and my boy in trying to get out a spar; they at first consented, but after some time gave up the attempt. With great difficulty myself and my boy got it tumbled into the water, and made it fast with a rope; after which we laid hold of a short piece of plank that was floating past, and secured it in the same manner. We had now each a piece

piece of wood with which to make an effort: I hesitated some time, but was at last prevailed on by my boy, and we agreed to set off together. After he got upon his piece of plank my resolution failed me; however, when I considered the people might leave the beach that night, and that I should have less strength to-morrow, I felt myself called on to make the attempt; I therefore took my leave of Mrs. Bremner, who, as I have already mentioned, was unable to make the least exertion for herself, and even so weak as not to admit of our making any for her with effect. It was with pain I was obliged to leave her, but I hoped if I reached the shore, I should prevail on some of the natives to come to her relief. She gave me a rupee at parting, and dismissed me with a thousand good wishes for my safety. Just as I was recommending myself to the divine protection, the piece of wood got loose and floated away; I paused for a moment, and summoning up all my resolution, plunged into the sea. Though I could hardly move a joint before, whenever I got into the water my limbs became pliant, and I soon swam to the spar, but could not long keep hold of it. Had it been flat, it would have continued on one side, but being a perfect square, it turned round with every motion of the water, and rolled me under it. This exhausted me so much as almost to put an end to my hopes; I repeatedly let it go in despair, but whenever I found myself sinking, I caught hold of it again, and gripped it with all my might. I observed that I did not get any nearer the shore, but drifted in a direction almost parallel to the beach. Foreseeing that I should not be able to hold out much longer, I tried every method to keep the spar from turning, and at last lay along side of it with one hand and one leg over, while with the other arm and leg I struggled hard to guide it towards the shore. For some time I succeeded tolerably well, but all at once was overwhelmed with a tremendous sea, which broke over me, and tore away the spar. I now thought all was over; and, after a short struggle, was beginning to sink, when another surf threw me right across the spar, which was carried back with considerable

force by the reflux of the sea. I was almost breathless with the shock, yet I instinctively grasped it with both my arms and legs, and was several times rolled round and round along with it. I was also scratched with the sand and shells which the surf had carried back from the beach, but this I considered as a sign that I was near the shore (though I could not see it), which greatly animated my hopes. One or two more surfs threw me violently on the rocks, and to prevent the returning surf from carrying me back, I laid fast hold of them.

"The only clothes I had when I left the ship were a flannel waistcoat, part of a shirt, and a pair of trowsers. The two first being ragged, I tied in a bundle at my back to prevent their encumbering me, but I lost them in the surf. The trowsers I still had on: finding them entangled in the rocks, when the surf had retreated, I tore them off, and made shift to crawl on all-fours (for I could not straighten my back) beyond the reach of the surf. Being now perfectly naked, I found the wind extremely cold, and therefore laid myself down under the lee of a rock, where, in a few minutes, though I observed some of the natives coming towards me, I fell asleep.—Three or four of them soon wakened me, speaking in the Moore language, at which I was overjoyed, for I feared we were beyond the Company's territories, and in those of the king of Ava.—They told me we were only six days journey from Chittagong, that they were Company's ryots (or peasants), and should take care of me if I would accompany them.—I answered, as well as I could, that I was so exhausted with fatigue, and the bruises I had received, that I could not stir, but begged to have a few grains of raw rice. Wretched as my condition was, I felt distressed at being seen without clothes, which they no sooner observed, than one of them, a Burma * (to whose humanity we were all afterwards much indebted) took his turban from his head, and tied it round my middle, after the custom of the country. Seeing me make ineffectual efforts to rise, two of them laid hold of my arms, and bore me along, my feet seldom touching the ground. Coming to a little stream, I begged to

* A particular caste or tribe so called.

he allowed to drink, from which they endeavoured to dissuade me, but as I would take no denial, they let go my arms, and dropped me on my feet. I immediately fell on my face in the water, but, instead of endeavouring to rise, I began to gulp it up as fast as I could, and shoud certainly have drank to excess had I been permitted.—I felt greatly revived by bathing in the fresh water, as well as by what I had taken into my stomach, and walked the rest of the way, leaning on the arms of my conductors. We soon arrived where their fire was kindled, and there I found the six Lascars, my boy, the gunner, and Serang*. The Lascars had gained the shore, as already mentioned, the preceding day, and the gunner and Serang, though they had left the ship later, as well as my boy, who had set off about the same time with me, being all more expert swimmers, had reached the shore before me.

" My joy at finding my companions safe, and at the accounts they gave of the humanity of our deliverers, quite overcame me, and for a while I believe my mind was deranged. I could not comprehend how the gunner and Serang had got on shore, as I had left them on board, and their explanations served only to bewilder me the more. I waited patiently about ten minutes till the rice was boiled, and did not ask for any raw; nor, when a little of the boiled was brought me on a leaf, would I touch it till they assured me it was not too much. I then put some into my mouth with my fingers, but, after chewing a little, I found I could not swallow it. One of the natives, observing my distress, dashed some water in my face with his hand, which, washing the rice down my throat, at first almost choked me, bpt it caused such an exertion of the muscles, that I soon recovered the power of swallowing, though for some time I was obliged to take a mouthful of water with every one of rice. My lips, and the inside of my mouth, were so cracked with the heat, that every motion of my jaws set them a bleeding, and gave me great pain.

" I never could exactly recollect what passed from this time till I awoke in the evening, after a most refreshing sleep.—I then represented to the na-

tives the situation in which I had left Mrs. Bremner, and her fellow-sufferers; and well knowing the influence of money on such minds, hinted that, if they would save her life, she was able liberally to reward them. Some of them promised to watch during the night, as the tide is then higher than in the day-time, and would probably bring the wreck nearer to the shore.

" After my nap I found myself very hungry, and was importunate with my deliverers for more rice, but they said they shoud have no more dressed that night. I therefore went to sleep again, and at midnight was awakened with the news that the lady and her maid were safe on shore. I rose immediately to welcome my fellow-sufferers, whom I found by the fire, after having eaten some rice, and I think I never saw joy more strongly painted than it was at that instant on the emaciated countenance of Mrs. Bremner.

" I afterwards understood that it was to the Burma's humanity she owed her safety. Finding that she had some rupees about her, the natives had already begun to form plans for dividing the spoil, which this worthy man overhearing, he watched his opportunity, and, with the assistance of one of his followers, saved the women without stipulating for any reward." P. 28.

XXXIV. A Review of Mr. Wilberforce's Treatise, entitled, A Practical View of the prevailing Religious System of Professed Christians, &c. In Letters to a Lady. By THOMAS BELSHAM. 8vo. pp. 277. 4s. Johnson.

EXTRACT.

LETTER XVII.

" THE immediate tendency of a civil establishment of religion, is to obstruct the progres of christian principles, and of sound morals. When a system, whether true or false, is once established, and the profession of it is paid for out of the public purse, all inquiry is at an end. Integrity, and the love of truth, yield to indolence, pride, and bitter zeal against those who attack, not, the doctrines of religion, but those of the public creed.

* Native boatswain.

An established priesthood is, in its very nature, a persecuting order. There has been no exception to this rule. Heathen and christian, jew and mohammedan, papist and protestant, episcopal and presbyterian, when in power, have all breathed the same fiery, intemperate spirit; a few enlightened individuals only excepted. Men who are engaged to defend an established system are, from that very circumstance, engaged to discourage inquiry, and to oppose truth, unless (which is not often the case) truth should happen to be the established doctrine.

"Mr. W. proceeds, p. 371, to exhibit an 'hypothetical delineation' of that state of religion, which might be expected to take place, in a country circumstanced like our own, and concludes, p. 376, with an appeal to facts, as justifying his gloomy apprehensions. 'Every where,' says he, 'we may actually trace the effects of increasing wealth and luxury, in banishing one by one the habits, and new modelling the phraseology, of stricter times; and in diffusing throughout the middle ranks those relaxed morals and dissipated manners, which were formerly confined to the higher classes of society.'

"I pity the man' (to borrow our author's own words upon another occasion), 'who can travel from Dan to Beer-sheba, and cry, It is all barren; who, when he views the moral conduct of his fellow-creatures, can discern nothing but depravity of nature, and progression in vice. It is indeed true, that the mass of mankind, in the present age, pay too little attention to religion; but at what period were they more pious, and virtuous, than they now are? I doubt the justice, as well as the wisdom, of the eternal declamation, that the 'former times were better than these.' In the present age there is indeed an unusual tendency to infidelity, but it may justly be doubted, whether the moral consequences of modern scepticism be more injurious, than the old habit of implicit faith, and its usual accompaniments, bigotry and persecution. Genuine christianity was, probably, never better understood in this country, nor more generally practised than at present. Persons who conceive that religion consists in antiquated phraseo-

logy, in attachment to unscriptural doctrines and creeds, and to sabbatical observations, or in the number and length of religious exercises, will of course imagine that religion is now much on the decline. But they who place the essence of christianity, in active benevolence, and habitual self-government, from a regard to God, and under the expectation of a future life, may perhaps see reason to think that there is as much real religion now as formerly, when there was more parade of it. If love to God be in any degree diminished, it may in part be attributed to the unamiable representations, which the popular system exhibits, of the Supreme Being. We cannot take pleasure in meditating upon God, nor feel proper regard towards him, till we have learned to conceive of him as perfectly wise, benevolent, and just; and to regard him as our father, and our friend.

"Amongt other instances of national degeneracy, Mr. W. mentions, p. 377, 'giving up to vanity and dissipation the portion of the week set apart to the service of religion,' and likewise, 'availing ourselves of the certainty of an interval from public business on a day of national humiliation, to secure a meeting for carnal vivial purposes.'

"That persons who are prohibited by law from following their usual occupations on the Sunday, and who have no taste for the services of religion, pass that day in idleness, and dissipation, highly prejudicial to their morals, is a fact too obvious to be denied; and which every sincere friend to virtue and religion must deeply lament. And it is evidently owing, entirely, to the folly of attempting to enforce the supposed laws of God, by civil sanctions. Men may be compelled to be idle, but they cannot be compelled to be good. And the natural and necessary consequence of idleness, is vice. Without pretending to the gift of prophecy, I will venture to predict, that as long as the present injudicious laws, enforcing the sabbatical observation of the first day of the week, remain in the statute-book, the national morals will be more corrupted on that day, than upon all the others taken together. Happily for the interest of good morals, the legislature wisely declined

to adopt a proposition introduced, not long since, by some well-meaning, but ill-advised, members of the House of Commons, for enforcing a stricter observation of the Lord's day. But the public morals will never be entirely freed from an unfavourable bias from this quarter, till the apostolical canon becomes the law of the land: 'As one man regards one day above another, and another regards every day alike, let every one be fully persuaded in his own mind, and freely enjoy his own opinion.'

"A religious distinction of days having been expressly abolished by the christian law, no human authority hath any just right to revive it, much less is any one at liberty to condemn another, for devoting a day to innocent cheerfulness, which he chuses to dedicate to rigorous austerity. But this censorious spirit is the natural consequence of such voluntary services. The puerile notion, that occasional abstinence from food is acceptable to God, any farther than it may be conducive to health or temperance, or, that it is more agreeable to the Almighty that a man should dine upon fish rather than upon flesh, is inconsistent with the manly genius of christianity, and even with common sense. A national fast, therefore, is at best an unauthorized, and an insignificant institution. But if such a ceremony is ever appointed by a body of men, who, notoriously disregarding all appearances of religion themselves, make use of it as a mere engine of state, to subserve their own finiter purposes, it behoves every one, who is really concerned for the honour of christianity, to treat such an institution with neglect, as an affront to religion and decency." P. 199.

* "Rom. xiv. 5."

† "Mr. W. takes some pains in the note, p. 377, to exculpate his friend, Mr. Pitt, from the heinous offence of giving a dinner on the fast-day. Our worthy author does not seem to be aware, that the world is now too much enlightened to suppose, that statesmen are themselves serious in such observances. The public are fully sensible that feasts are intended for the swinish multitude, and not for cabinet ministers."

MR. WILBERFORCE'S ADVICE TO BELIEVERS AND TO SCEPTICS.

"MR. W.'s advice to believers is contained in his second section, p. 461. And 'he warns these men, first, (p. 464.) to beware lest they be nominal christians of another sort.' It is not easy to understand this distinction between different sorts of nominal christians. I am unwilling to believe, what nevertheless the author's language seems to imply, that in Mr. W.'s opinion, the first, and most fundamental error, is a misapprehension of christian doctrine, and that the next, and more venial one, is a defect in christian practice.

"I do not then misrepresent our author, when I state him as teaching that misconception of christian doctrine is the 'fundamental practical error' of the present day; and I have mistaken the whole tenor of his book, if he does not mean to represent this fundamental error, as inconsistent with the salvation of those who hold it. It is indeed difficult to believe, that in this enlightened and inquisitive age, a man of Mr. W.'s rank, talents, and character, can doom to destruction all those wise and good men, who have doubted, or rejected, his strange unscriptural doctrines. If this be the religion, the pleasures of which he enjoys with so high a relish, I, for one, do not 'envy him his feelings.' As to the rest, what he advances in this section, allowance being made for his assumed principles, is very just. The christian religion requires the absolute renunciation of every vice, and the practice of every virtue. It is the indispensible duty of all to exercise the greatest vigilance, and to set a special guard against those vices, to which, in their respective circumstances, they are peculiarly exposed." P. 249.

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